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THE NATURE AND PURPOSES OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL IN THE
NORTH WEST TERRITORIES (1885-1905) AND ALBERTA (1905-1963)

by

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A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES
IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE
OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

APRIL, 1964

UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies for acceptance, a thesis entitled "The Nature and Purposes of the Public School in the North West Territories (1885-1905) and Alberta (1905-1963)" submitted by Ernest Daniel Hodgson in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

ABSTRACT

Since World War II there has been much controversy in Alberta over the nature and purposes of the public schools. This discussion centres on the school of the past as well as that of the present. The aim of this study was to search out and to identify certain characteristics of educational thought for the period of time in which schools have been organized under central government in the North West Territories and Alberta.

The study was limited to a consideration of what the central authorities and their officials have stated as desirable policies for the tax-supported schools. Little attempt has been made to judge the extent to which these policies have been put into effect, or to judge their success in practice. And, except incidentally, no evaluation of official ideas was undertaken in the study.

The study deals with the following periods of time: 1885-92, 1892-1901, 1901-05, 1905-12, 1912-22, 1922-36, 1936-63. These divisions represent occasions upon which there were distinct changes in central authority, or curriculum, or both.

The consideration of each period is related to two main sub-problems:

1. Who should receive schooling? To what level?
2. What are the aims for education?

In order to place these two major questions in perspective, a brief survey was made for each period of certain obvious features of schools: classification and organization of pupils, curriculum, texts

and reference prescribed, courses of study, the nature of external examinations, promotion policies at local and central levels, and the teaching procedures regarded as desirable. The study also sought to determine authorities' opinions concerning the nature of society, the form of the school, and the role of the school with respect to social change. A "label" was sought for the educational ideas and the basic philosophy of each period.

Evidence revealed many changes in schools over the seventy-eight years under study. Classification of pupils was changed in 1912, and the organization of schools altered in 1936. The curriculum has been altered, period by period, with the greatest changes in principle occurring in 1912-22. In general, the high school has shown much more change in both principle and detail than the elementary school. With respect to texts and references, there has been considerable emphasis since 1922 upon wide reading beyond the limited bounds of a single text. Courses of study have increased in volume over the years as central authorities have sought to state newer materials, newer procedures, or newer grounds for using old materials or procedures. External examinations have changed in nature, maintaining questions that require recall and organization, but adding questions that test other abilities such as interpretation, recognition, analysis, and explanation. Promotion policies have generally been related very closely to intellectual achievement, though for a few years after 1936 there was an attempt to give social factors more weight than they had previously enjoyed. Teaching procedures show additions and modifications over the various periods under study.

There has been a steady trend to the offering of schooling to a greater percentage of children; more abilities and more handicaps are now being accommodated in the schools; greater provision has been made period by period for more pupils to secure some type of high school education.

The major aims for education have long been many, encompassing even in the early years the care and development of each pupil's intellectual ability, physical health, religious views, character, social adjustment and citizenship. The changes in aims since 1885-92 have consisted mostly of additions. In one period or another there have been added such major aims as vocational preparation, training for leisure, cultivation of mental health, development of the aesthetic and preparation for family life. Some of these latter aims received minor attention from time to time in earlier periods of the province's history. All of the major aims, with the exception of mental health, were established before 1936.

Changes in emphasis have taken place within aims (e.g., intellectual development), and some aims have alternately received minor and major emphasis.

Our society has been regarded as fundamentally stable in its political and economic organization. Departmental documents, though, revealed awareness of many changes that have occurred in various aspects of provincial life. Immigration and a rural pattern of life of the early 1900's had given way to features characteristic of an urban society.

The school has consistently been regarded as a special institution

designed to develop young people so that they could understand the world about them, make a contribution to it, and make a living in it.

Documents of the central authority have not always assigned the school a role in the process of social change, but, when it has been delineated, the schools have been charged with the conservative task of maintaining order amidst change.

Only in one period of time, 1936-45, did the Department of Education use a particular term to characterize a complete set of educational ideas. For the nine years mentioned the educational system was termed "progressive".

The basic philosophy of the central authority has altered relatively little period to period, and has usually been a variant of Idealism. Evidence showed some influence of experimentalism in 1936-45.

Changes in schools have resulted from many factors: social, political, religious, scientific, technological, educational. These have reacted together in such a complex fashion that it is hard to say which influences have been the most compelling. It appears safe to say, however, that few significant changes have taken place in Alberta schools as a result of educators' opinions alone. On occasion, educators have used the strength of various influences to support new educational ideas, but most general changes have occurred because the central authority has adapted the schools to the changing nature and demands of society.

Since, on the whole, educational ideas have broadened on down from precedent to precedent, it is difficult to establish any necessary or inextricable link between the educational ideas of any period and the

educational "ism" or basic "ism" of that period. Many views about such matters as texts, examinations, teaching procedures and aims for the school appear to be as compatible with one "ism" as another.

On the basis of the documents surveyed for this study, one cannot say that the history of public schools in Alberta falls neatly into two categories, pre-1936 and post-1936. There are a number of stages of development before 1936, and there are two stages since that time.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author is indebted to his thesis committee for their courtesy and consideration. He is also indebted to Dr. H. S. Baker, Dean, Faculty of Education, Calgary, for the assistance given with the preliminary chapters of this thesis. Dr. Baker was originally a member of the thesis committee.

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FOREWORD

In completing this study I encountered the two major problems of any study--validity and reliability.

Initially, I attempted to secure validity by developing a master outline covering all of the periods of time under study. As I worked through the documents relevant to each period I was forced by what I read to revise the initial outline a number of times, and hence to make revisions in the content and organization of chapters already written. In this way I tried to get a more complete and precise statement of the ideas to be studied.

The above process of analysis and revision is probably also my best hope as to the reliability of the work undertaken. While some other person studying the period of 1885-1963 might give a different account of this period than I have, I trust that the differences would lie in relatively unimportant details and not in outstanding ideas or notable trends.

A third problem, not of the magnitude of the two above, should be mentioned. This was the task of viewing each period of educational activity as those involved in the period must have viewed it. Particularly troublesome was the period of 1936-63, for added to the task of objectivity was the sheer bulk of material to be considered and interpreted; in this period alone the Department of Education published thousands of pages of material in various documents.

Ernest Hodgson.

CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

The territory now known as Alberta has had over one hundred years of educational history. Mission schools were established at Lac Ste. Anne in 1842 and Fort Edmonton in 1852 by the Roman Catholic missionaries, Fathers Thibault and Lacombe. Reverend Robert Rundle, a Methodist, gave some instruction to children at different points in the Saskatchewan river basin from 1840 onwards; in 1855 two other Methodists, Reverend Thomas Woolsey and Reverend N. B. Steinhauer, established mission schools at Fort Edmonton and Whitefish Lake. Mission schools were established by different denominational groups at such other places as Pigeon Lake, Morley, Fort MacLeod, Victoria (Pakan), St. Albert and Lesser Slave Lake. The first voluntary non-denominational school appears to have been established at Fort Edmonton in 1874; public subscription and entertainments supplied the funds to support this school.¹

In 1880 the Dominion government agreed to an item of four thousand dollars in the estimates of the Council of the North-West Territories; this money was to be used to pay half of the salary of a teacher of any mission or voluntary school, provided that there were at least fifteen scholars on the school's attendance rolls.

By an Ordinance of 1884, the North-West Territories Council

¹General historical information is drawn from Isadore Goresky, "The Beginning and Growth of the Alberta School System" (unpublished Master of Education thesis, University of Alberta, 1944).

established in the Territories a system of state controlled and supported schools. This system, from 1885 to 1892, was a variant of the Dual System of Quebec. The Board of Education placed in charge of the schools was composed of two "sections", one Catholic and the other Protestant (that is, representing all non-Catholic points of view). In 1892 this type of Dual system was abolished by the Legislative Assembly, the schools coming directly under the control of the Executive Council which was advised in its deliberations by a religious advisory council. This advisory body, as might be expected, was composed of Catholic and non-Catholic members. In 1901 control of education was placed directly under one government department with a responsible minister; the religious advisory council continued. This departmental arrangement was carried forward when Alberta became a province in 1905. The religious advisory council became inactive in 1912 and was finally abolished in 1942.

Since 1905, the Alberta Department of Education has sponsored four general curriculum revisions, those of 1912-15, 1922-25, 1936-39, 1946-54.

I. THE PROBLEM

As has been noted immediately above, Alberta's educational history appears to have a number of well-defined points at which changes took place in central authority or in curriculum. Periods that seem to be distinct and also complete within themselves are those of 1885-92, 1892-1901, 1901-05, 1905-12, 1912-22, 1922-36, 1936-45, 1945-63. It seems reasonable to suppose that those who were in charge of the educational system stated in each period some reasonably systematic and coherent point of view concerning the schooling of children; and that

over a span of almost eighty years there might have been some changes in these points of view. The problem with which this thesis is concerned is that of determining the nature of some of the educational ideas supported officially by the Government of the North-West Territories, 1885-1905, and then by the Government of Alberta, 1905-1963.

II. STATEMENT OF SUB-PROBLEMS

This study will attempt to ascertain some major educational ideas for each of the periods under study. It will be necessary to seek direct statements and supporting evidence concerning the following questions:²

1. Who should be educated? Why? To what grade level? Why? What kinds of pupil capacities and interests should the public school system seek to accommodate? Why?
2. What are the aims of the school? Is there any priority or emphasis among aims?
3. By what means should schooling be carried out (subjects, subject-matter organization, teaching procedures, examinations, promotion policies, texts and references, grouping of students for instruction, etc.)? Why are these particular means used rather than others?
4. Who should be a teacher? What kind of preparation should he receive?

¹Section III of this chapter indicates that there will be no attempt to answer Question 4. Limits have also been placed upon certain other questions.

5. What is the form of the school? e.g., Is the school a micro-cosm of society?
6. What is the nature of the society for which the school is fitting the child?
7. What is the nature of man?
8. What is the philosophy that the central authority regards as basic to the current set of ideas about schooling?

III. DELIMITATION OF THE THESIS

This thesis is primarily of a panoramic, descriptive nature. The points of view of the government and their officials will be surveyed, analyzed and identified.

Since it is the primary task of this study to determine official sentiments about education over a period of many years, there will be no attempt to state or analyze the views of non-Departmental persons. The only exception to this limitation lies in Section VI of this chapter wherein views of some non-Departmental persons are used to help illustrate the need for this thesis.

This study will not show for different sets of ideas the origins of the various ideas. However, if Departmental documents themselves indicate what influences there have been upon particular views, these statements will be given and will be accepted at face value.

It is also appropriate to note that the study will deal only with the aims or intentions of educational authorities, and not with the success of various ideas as they have worked out or are working out in practice.

In order to keep the study within manageable limits, it is proposed to deal mainly with sub-problems 1 and 2 (Who should be educated? To what ends?). Sub-problem 3 will be discussed in some detail, since it is by looking at "means" that we gain a more complete appreciation of the way in which the aims have been interpreted. Sub-problems 5, 6 and 8 will be dealt with briefly. Sub-problem 4 is of such a scope that it has been omitted from this study entirely; the whole history of teacher training in Alberta is deserving of a study in itself. While sub-problem 4 is to be omitted, such an omission does not render any less valuable a searching look at the rest of the sub-problems of the thesis.

Sub-problem 7 will not be dealt with in each chapter of the study, but will receive some attention in the General Summary. There is little direct evidence in Departmental documents about "the nature of man"; one gains notions about this question rather obliquely. It is therefore best left to the end of the study.

IV. HYPOTHESES

In a later section of this chapter a discussion of the need for this thesis will indicate briefly certain points of view held about Alberta philosophies of education. These views in themselves constitute hypotheses or sets of hypotheses. The chapter on related literature, dealing as it does with certain formal studies of Alberta's educational history, will indicate other possible hypotheses. Until the survey of related literature is completed, no formal statement of various hypotheses will be made.

V. BASIC ASSUMPTIONS

It is assumed that the Board of Education, the Council of Public Instruction and Departments of Education (1901-1905, 1905-1963), by virtue of constitutional responsibilities in education and their position as central authorities, formulated certain definite policies in public education. It is further assumed that official publications of the central authorities, and articles and speeches by senior officials, give the true policies of the central authorities.

VI. NEED FOR THE STUDY

From time to time in the history of a region, there occurs a period in which public education is the subject of much discussion. For Alberta, such a period is that of the years lying between 1936 and 1963. In 1936, the Alberta Department of Education formally announced a break away ("a revolt") from the "traditional" school in favor of the "progressive school" or the school of the "New Education." Departmental publications of this period abound in criticisms of the past and of the "traditional" school. There are such statements as the following:

. . .In the past the emphasis has been upon intellectual, utilitarian and objectively measurable results. Today the school is expected to provide exercise for emotional responses as well as for the intellectual capacities.³

. . .The activity programme thus offers a solution for the old problem of "character education," concerning which the traditional curriculum accomplished very little.⁴

³Programme of Studies for the Elementary School, 1942, p. 5.

⁴Ibid., p. 7.

. . .Practice has long made the skill and the subject the main objectives of our educational effort, to the neglect of child nature and growth. . . .⁵

. . .education must cease to be a narrowly intellectual process, whose sole concern is the acquisition of subject-matter and skills, and enlarge its objective to include those aspects of child development which are at least as important in development of worthwhile citizens, the emotional, the social, and the volitional sides of his nature.⁶

. . .Memorization and cramming are not good enough. . . .⁷

[In the new programme] the motivation of the pupils is strengthened and the classroom work vitalized through a variety of activities, which replace the verbalism and repetitive book-learning procedures of the old course. . . .⁸

The Alberta programme is a protest against formal methods of instruction and rigidly prescriptive instructional materials. . . .⁹

Dr. D. J. Dickie of the Provincial Normal School at Edmonton published, in 1941, a Normal School text for the Enterprise, The Enterprise in Theory and Practice. In this volume, Dr. Dickie describes three kinds of schools: the formal, the ultra-activity, and the progressive. Dr. Dickie looks upon the formal and the ultra-activity schools as being at opposite ends of a scale; the progressive school represents the best institution possible. In speaking of the formal school, obviously the pre-1936 Alberta school, Dr. Dickie has this extended analysis to make of its characteristics and its faults:

. . .The formal school is the lineal descendent and heir of the school of the old world. Its purpose. . .is to inculcate knowledge and skill. The formal school teaches subject matter. . . .The teacher's purpose is to "cover the course." His method is that of

⁵Ibid. ⁶Ibid., p. 8. ⁷Ibid., p. 24.

⁸Thirtieth Annual Report of the Department of Education, 1935, p. 19.

⁹Programme of Studies for the Intermediate School, 1937, p. 11.

"instruction and drill."

. . . In practice, if not in theory, the formal school regards knowledge and skills as ends in themselves. . . .

. . . [The teacher] can admit only the narrowest, meanest and least attractive purposes, urging his pupils to work hard in order that each child may best the others, win the prize, pass the examination, please the teacher, or avoid his anger. Few objectives mean few activities, and destructive rather than constructive development, so that the pupil's gain in having acquired the facts and skills is partly offset by the harmful activities practised in acquiring them.

. . . The formal teacher not only does not teach the pupil how to direct his activities intelligently, but also by exercising his own powers of choosing, analysing, planning and directing prevents the pupil from developing his. . . .¹⁰

One might well ask if there had been any such thing as the formal or "traditional" school at all, and if so, if the traditional schools really were what the 1936 writers said they were. Or, were the "revolutionaries" simply painting the past as black as possible in order that their own ideas would shine more brightly by contrast? Were Departmental writers of 1936 mistaken about the past? Were they guilty of using myths and half-truths? Have there really been just two periods of educational history in Alberta, pre-1936 and post-1936?

Further than this, once the ideas of 1936 were put into effect in the schools they became the object of critical examination, particularly outside of the Department of Education. Since there does not appear to have been any point at which the Department openly declared its intention of dropping the term "progressive education" or of making an open break with "progressivism," the years following 1936 constitute one long

¹⁰Donalda Dickie, The Enterprise (Toronto: W. J. Gage and Co., Limited, 1941), pp. 75-77.

unbroken period of "progressivism." Dr. Hilda Neatby, in So Little For The Mind, is obviously of this opinion. Dr. W. G. Hardy, in a series of articles published for some Alberta newspapers in 1954, noted that Alberta had had a version of progressive education ("adulterated Deweyism") since 1936, though some modifications in a conservative direction had been made in the period of 1946-54. The editors of the Calgary Herald, in the preface to a pamphlet containing Dr. Hardy's articles, said that for nineteen years the techniques of education in Alberta had been undergoing a revolution commonly spoken of as "progressive." Mr. John S. Cormack, a member of the Alberta Royal Commission on Education (1959) and the writer of a minority report, maintained that Alberta today (1959) had as uncompromisingly a progressivist philosophy as it used to be undeniably essentialist. According to Mr. Cormack, Alberta had an essentialist philosophy when the province was formed, and retained that philosophy until the Deweyite progressives "took control of schools in the 1930's" and "revolutionized" the school system. Again, since a number of writers tend to associate "progressivism" with John Dewey and pragmatism, a 1958 statement by the president of a Calgary local of the Alberta Teachers' Association shows that a number of teachers have thought of 1936-58 as one unbroken period. The president's statement, quoted in the Calgary Herald of April 9, 1958, is as follows:

. . . Philosophers and leading educationists must give considerable thought to the formation of a sounder educational philosophy upon which to base Alberta education. The present pragmatic-experimental philosophy is the philosophy of American industrialization.

Its emergence was natural but its application to education is unsound. . . .

As with the Departmental writers' views about the "traditional"

school, we might well inquire about the critics' views of 1936-63.¹¹ Are these views mistaken in any way? Do they constitute myths or half-truths? Has there really been just one period of educational thought since 1936? And has this one period had pragmatism as a basic philosophy?

These questions are given point when one considers some interesting evidence, particularly with respect to the question of pragmatism as a basic philosophy. Mr. William Aberhart, premier of the province in 1935 and also Minister of Education, was a well-known radio speaker for the Prophetic Bible Institute. Mr. Ernest Manning, now premier, carries on Mr. Aberhart's ministry. Mr. G. Fred McNally, Deputy Minister of Education in 1936, had long been a prominent Baptist layman in Edmonton. Mr. Solon Low, who followed Mr. Aberhart as Minister of Education, was a Mormon. Is it likely that these figures, particularly the cabinet ministers, would have supported pragmatism as a basic philosophy for the schools of the province?

Again, since school law in the province specifically provides for tax-supported separate schools, Catholic or Protestant, and for periods of religious instruction in any public or separate school, how could a central authority logically proceed to state that a non-religious and non-Christian belief such as pragmatism was central to the work of all schools?

After 1945, particularly, there is solid and indisputable evidence

¹¹These views are quoted because all of them have received wide publicity in the province and all tend to make certain assumptions in common.

that the basic philosophy of education in Alberta was Christian idealism.¹² This evidence, along with other views related above makes it difficult to accept the idea that pragmatism has ever been the basic philosophy of education in Alberta.

With respect to the educational ideas of the period 1936-63, one can observe a change in the organization of subject matter in the Enterprise (1947), a change in promotion policies (1956), and changes in the high school program (1954 and 1963). Were these changes (and there are others, too) merely changes in detail, leaving 1936 principles unaltered, or do they signify an essential change in principles?

Again, if one accepts the term "Deweyan" as a label for the educational ideas of 1936-63, one must account for the 1954 views held by Dr. W. H. Swift, Deputy Minister of Education. Dr. Swift said that from the pedagogical point of view, if not from the philosophical, much of what had been done in education in Alberta could be traced beyond Dewey to Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Froebel, Binet, and Montessori. Said Dr. Swift, "I must say that in all my connection with the work of the Department of Education I have heard little or nothing of Dewey. I do not believe there has been any Dewey cult. There is certainly not now."¹³

Enough has been said to indicate that documents for 1885-1963 need to be examined carefully in order that views about education can be

¹²This evidence will be detailed in the chapter dealing with the period of 1936-63.

¹³W. H. Swift, "Pendulum or Synthesis," The Alberta School Trustee, Vol. XXIV, No. 3 (March, 1954), p. 9.

documented, and answers sought for the following propositions:

1. That Alberta has really had only two periods of educational thought, pre-1936 and post-1936 (or "traditional" and "progressive" education).
2. That Alberta's progressive education is largely an embodiment of John Dewey's ideas concerning schooling.
3. That progressive education has had pragmatism (experimentalism) as a basic philosophy.

The task of identification and of clarification seems valuable, for the reason that the evidence produced might help to resolve some of the current arguments about education in Alberta--or at least shift them to more valid grounds.¹⁴ That is, the study seems to have some value for the general public. It is worth noting that while studies have been done in Alberta of topics such as school finance, school board administrative structures, school transportation and the history of various school subjects, no study has yet been made along the lines proposed above. This is a serious omission, since a definitive history of education in Alberta can scarcely be written until questions relevant to this particular study are answered. Obviously, there are other studies missing, too, but major educational ideas are an important part of the Alberta pattern.

¹⁴For example, critics of "progressive" education tend to hold "progressivists" responsible for a decline in the three R's. If pre-1936 education can be shown to have much in common with post-1936 education, or if post-1936 education can be shown to be less "Deweyan" than the critics suggest, perhaps the spectre of "progressivism" will be moved aside enough for the critics to see the true question: "How does one secure the evidence upon which to base a comparison of two groups of students a generation apart in their schooling?"

Turning to groups more restricted in number and nature, one could say that a study of views about education would be useful to teachers in training. Second, it would have value for a school superintendent or principal who becomes involved in local curriculum studies or curriculum making. Third, if school administrators are to be completely effective in conventions, conferences and speaking engagements, they need to have access to data and points of view connected with all of the different periods of Alberta's educational history. These leaders may not use many of the ideas directly, but possession of the ideas will give them the perspective with which to be better spokesmen for education. Finally, as administrators and teachers work with each other, each needs to have a clear knowledge of the ideas to which the other has been exposed in his training and his teaching career; in this way there is a better possibility that each will understand the other.

VII. COLLECTION OF THE DATA

The data collected will be taken from official publications of the Board of Education (1885-92), the Council of Public Instruction (1892-1901) and the Departments of Education (1901-1963). Statements and addresses by Departmental officials will also be used; these can be found in such publications as the magazines of the Alberta Teachers' Association and the Alberta School Trustees' Association.

VIII. TREATMENT OF THE DATA

Each of the various periods of time under study will be treated

as a unit.¹⁵ For each period there will be developed relevant background material with respect to such topics as curriculum, courses of study, examinations, pupil classification, the prescription and organization of subject-matter, teaching methods, and government structure and control in education. In this general setting there will then be discussed those specific statements that bear directly upon the main sub-problems of the thesis. It is intended that only major characteristics, changes and trends will be reported. Thus, while much attention may be given to Departmental examinations in earlier chapters, scarcely any space will be devoted to these in later sections; this is so because beginning in 1891 school authorities stated their aims more and more explicitly, and one is not forced to make a detailed analysis of examination papers in order to discover educational aims. Lastly, when the reasons for changes from period to period are noted in official statements, such reasons will be given briefly.

IX. PREVIEW OF THESIS ORGANIZATION

The present chapter has been concerned with establishing a problem for investigation. It has also stated sub-problems, delimited the thesis, given basic assumptions, outlined the need for the study, and reviewed procedures to be followed in collecting and treating data. Chapter II will give a survey of related literature, and will propose certain hypotheses for the periods of time for which the related materials are relevant. Succeeding chapters will deal with the various historical periods since

¹⁵For example, 1885-92, 1892-1901.

1885. The final chapter will give a summary, a statement of conclusions, and some comments.

CHAPTER II

RELATED LITERATURE

In this chapter a number of related studies will be reviewed. The general findings of each study will be outlined in relation to the sub-problem of the thesis. This procedure will give cohesion to the chapter and furnish a more complete understanding of the hypotheses at which the chapter finally arrives.

In order to keep the review of related literature within valid and useful limits it is proposed to deal in large part with material about the North West Territories and Alberta that meets all of the following specifications:

1. Formal studies completed in the areas of philosophy of education, general curriculum change, and general change in the elementary and secondary schools.
2. Studies completed since 1940 and dealing with pre-1936 and post-1936 periods.
3. Studies offered by various individuals towards a master's or doctor's degree at a recognized university.

Application of the above criteria to the available studies about Alberta results in the general exclusion of all studies except these:

1. "The Beginning and Growth of the Alberta School System," an unpublished Master of Education thesis by Isidore Goresky, 1944, University of Alberta.
2. "The History and Development of the Elementary School in Alberta," an unpublished Doctor of Pedagogy thesis by George

Kennedy Sheane, 1948, University of Toronto.

3. "An Historical Survey of Certain Concepts Basic to Progressive Education with Particular Attention to the Alberta Scene," an unpublished Master of Education thesis by Berthold Figur, 1950, University of Alberta.
4. "Public Secondary Education in Alberta: Organization and Curriculum, 1889-1951," an unpublished Doctor of Philosophy dissertation by Bernal Ernest Walker, 1955, Stanford University.

The application of the criteria means that the studies that are excluded are those dealing with such single areas as the following:

Social Studies

Art

Home Economics

Mathematics

Industrial Arts

Commercial Subjects

Guidance

Dramatics

Consolidated Schools

Rural High Schools

Alberta Normal Schools

Biographies of individuals (e.g., D. J. Goggin, F. W. G. Haultain)¹

These studies are generally excluded because they treat very narrow

¹This list gives a small sampling of the many studies completed since 1940 either at the University of Alberta or at various Canadian and American universities.

sections of Alberta's educational history, and because they do not attempt to answer the kinds of questions being asked about Alberta in this present study. Since they may, however, give some slight evidence indirectly as to the nature of changes occurring in Alberta, it is considered useful to include three studies of representative subjects on the provincial curriculum; one can secure as much general evidence from three studies as from ten or fifteen. The studies chosen are English, Mathematics and Art. These are subjects that have appeared on the school program since the 1885-92 period of education in the North West Territories. English and Mathematics have long been central to academic education, and historically speaking, Art has been regarded as more central to the fine arts than either Music or Dramatics.² While a number of subjects have been added to the curriculum since 1885-92, and such additions may reflect basic changes in the thinking of educational leaders, any basic changes should also be reflected in the history of "standard" subjects. It is, therefore, safer to choose these studies for related literature, and then to study original and primary documents for the writing of the body of the thesis. In brief, then, consideration of some related literature is profitable, but a study of all possible related literature would not furnish one with useful answers to the sub-problems of this study.

²"Historically speaking" in this context means that art, music and dramatics appeared on school curricula in Alberta in the order just given. English is chosen as a part of the English-History pattern, and Mathematics as part of the Mathematics-Science pattern.

The following are the three related studies chosen for the reasons outlined above:

1. "Art Education--Its Cultural Basis, Its Development and Its Application in Alberta Schools," an unpublished Master of Education thesis by John Allison Forbes, 1951, University of Alberta.
2. "The Evolution of the Mathematics Program in Alberta High Schools," an unpublished Master of Education thesis by Irene Elma Buckles, 1956, University of Alberta.
3. "The Development of the English Program in the Secondary Schools of Alberta," an unpublished Master of Education thesis by Stanley Sawicki, 1958, University of Alberta.

I. CURRICULUM PERIODS

All of the related studies confirm the existence of various periods in the educational history of the North West Territories and Alberta. Goresky, Walker, Buckles and Sheane begin their respective accounts of educational developments by dealing with the Board of Education period (1885-1892), the Council of Public Instruction (1892-1901), and the 1901-1905 period of the Department of Education of the North West Territories. They proceed beyond 1905 with the Alberta Department of Education, noting curriculum changes occurring in general in 1912-22, 1922-36, 1936-39 and 1947-55. Forbes, Figur and Sawicki begin their accounts in 1905 and agree in the main with the curriculum periods just noted.

With respect to the significance of these curriculum changes, there appears to be some difference of opinion. Figur and Sheane tend to consider

Alberta as having had two major periods of educational thought, pre-1936 and post 1936. Goresky, Walker, Forbes, Buckles and Sawicki tend to regard 1936 as being of considerable significance, but they point out an evolution of ideas before 1936 as well as a number of changes since 1936.

II. THE AIMS FOR EDUCATION

Not all of the related studies deal with aims for the school, but from the studies that do consider aims it is possible to observe that educational authorities have long been concerned with many aspects of each student's development.

The intellectual development of the student has been of great importance, and competence in the Three R's has been a vital part of intellectual development. Buckles indicates that authorities in every period wanted to secure good achievement in the mathematical studies of algebra, geometry, arithmetic and trigonometry. One of the first arithmetic texts prescribed in 1885-92 (Hamblin Smith's Arithmetic) was specially adapted to the wants of the business community--an indication of the schools' desire to seek speed, accuracy and neatness. The examiners for mathematics in 1902 noted that too many pupils were inaccurate in their calculations and careless in their reading habits. In the course of various revisions of the high school program in mathematics authorities have continued to seek mastery of the "fundamentals." In the 1936-39 revision of the high school program, students with lesser abilities in mathematics were to develop mastery within these lesser limits:

The courses in general mathematics are offered to meet the needs

of students whose special aptitudes or interests do not lie in the field of mathematics, but for whom, nevertheless, some knowledge of fundamental mathematical concepts and the application of these to practical situations of life will be of value. . . .³

A 1950 Departmental bulletin indicated three aims of mathematics teaching in high schools: one of these was to make mathematics a more effective tool for solving the complex problems of modern life. Another was to give a preview of, to estimate interest in, and to provide a sound basis for more advanced mathematics.⁴

Sawicki indicates that educational authorities pursued in every period of curriculum history the aim of having students able to write clear, correct and effective prose. Methods of achieving this goal varied from period to period. In the early years of the province's history it was thought that an intensive study of formal grammar would logically result in a better understanding of the English language. The student was also offered many models of good writing. Through the 1920's, the 1930's and the 1940's there emerged a concept of fusing instruction in composition and in grammar so that each of these aspects of language study would strengthen instruction in the other. This view was expressed quite clearly in 1955:

. . . Surely no language program can move very far unless students become involved in practical situations requiring the use of language. And just as surely, no such program can be truly educative if there is not going on, concurrently, some more theoretical work devoted to appraisal and improvement. The total process, then, is circular; students have language experiences which provide opportunity and motivation for study about language, which in turn enables them to

³Syllabus for General Mathematics 1, 2 and 3 of the Programme of Studies for the High School, 1939, p. 3 (quoted in Buckles, p. 64).

⁴Bulletin 4, 1950, p. 2 (quoted in Buckles, p. 73).

have better language experiences.⁵

Sheane shows that the elementary school has long had a special concern for the Three R's.

A second aspect of the intellectual aims for the school was that of providing students with a body of knowledge. Sawicki speaks of this as being the transmission of the cultural heritage. In early periods of the province's history, this heritage tended to consist of literary works by established and outstanding British authors. Later courses introduced good writing by contemporary authors, Canadian, American and British. Buckles indicates that a body of knowledge in mathematics was always considered useful, and Forbes that the same held true in Art. Forbes, however, shows that in Art the curriculum makers have tended to be concerned with a "draftsman's skills" first, knowledge and appreciation second, and creativity a very remote third. It is only since 1950 that creativity has been given some of its due emphasis. Walker shows that educators have been concerned in every period about providing students with a body of knowledge.

Figur appears to see the pre-1936 school as one that insisted to too great a degree upon the accumulation of a body of material. To substantiate his views, Figur uses the language of the 1936 "reformers" who spoke of "verbalism", "repetitive book learning", "formal instruction", "collecting and memorizing facts", and a "forced growth in the classroom period of childhood." These views, one can rightly conclude, mean that students were exposed to a certain body of knowledge. In

⁵Senior High School Curriculum Guide for English, 1955, pp. 7-8 (quoted in Sawicki, p. 69).

addition, Figur says of the 1947 revision of the enterprise program that it showed an emphasis upon subject matter not noticed in the 1940 or 1942 programs.

A third aspect of intellectual development, according to the related literature, lay in developing the reasoning powers of students. Buckles and Sheane show that educators in 1905-1922 thought of mathematics as an aid to clear, logical reasoning. Grammar in the pre-1922 period, says Sawicki, was supposed to contribute heavily to a training in logical thinking. Both Sawicki and Buckles indicate that the powers developed by mathematics and grammar were supposed to be so generalized that study of either subject would help a person to think his way quite clearly through any number of situations or subjects unrelated to grammar and mathematics.⁶ This theory of formal discipline of the mind was in vogue until the 1922 revision of the curriculum; it was then replaced by a view that "transfer" of training was not likely to take place unless a teacher specifically taught for such transfer.

A fourth intellectual aim, the development of general principles, is noted by Forbes, Buckles and Sawicki, and Sheane.

A second general aim of the school has been the development of the aesthetic. This is attested to particularly by Forbes, but is also mentioned by Sawicki, Sheane and Walker. Forbes and Walker agree that

⁶Buckles asserts that the notion that the mental faculties can be developed by training in one subject has been known in education as the theory of formal discipline. The term "formal" implies that it is the form of the activity and not its content, not the subject matter itself, that is important in education. And "discipline" suggests the real spirit of the theory which is that the major virtues of tenacious memory, an inflexible will, pure and impersonal judgment and reason are to be secured only by full and vigorous exercise of the faculties.

Territorial views upon art education, for example, would not find ready acceptance today. But the essential point to notice is that educational authorities were concerned about a pupil's work in art. Sawicki shows that curriculum makers in all periods have been concerned about the proper and beautiful use of language.

The development of Christian views in each child was an accepted aim in the Board of Education period in 1885-92. However, with control of education passing to secular and political authorities in 1892, provision for religious instruction became a local responsibility to be discharged in the last half hour of the school day. Figur asserts that in 1936 the educational ideas of the province were directly derived from John Dewey's instrumentalism; there seems to be an inference that instrumentalism has replaced whatever had existed before 1936. But Sawicki gives evidence to show that the Department of Education in 1950 supported very strongly the view that children should come to have a philosophy of life based upon religion, preferably Christianity. A clash of views exists, then, between Figur and Sawicki.

Creativity, now held to be central to Art and to English, was not given great importance in earlier periods of educational history.

Vocational preparation, according to Walker, received little attention in 1885-1914. After 1914 the Department of Education supported instruction in technical subjects and business education. In 1922-36, some of the high school programs were directly vocational (e.g., Commercial, Technical, Agricultural, Normal Entrance). Vocational courses continued to be a part of the curriculum after 1936, although technical courses tended to be reduced to exploratory or industrial arts types of

courses in the early 1940's.

Goresky and Sawicki indicate that morality and good character have been of concern to educators in all periods. In writing in 1944 about Dr. D. J. Goggin (of 1892-1902), Goresky says that Dr. Goggin was "thoroughly modern" in his emphasis upon morality.⁷

The development of good social behavior has been an aim for education in many periods of time. Sawicki shows that English courses have had a social aim. Figur and Sheane indicate that Departmental officials in 1934-36 wanted to stress socialization through the use of the activity program.

Sawicki indicates that Departmental authorities in 1950 stated a concern for the pupil's growth in family living. No other study in the related literature alludes to this general aim for the school.

Goresky, Figur and Sawicki show the school's concern for citizenship. Goresky points this out for many periods. There is, for example, the early appointment in this province of a Supervisor of Schools Among Foreigners; in 1905-22 this person helped various ethnic groups to establish schools in the Alberta pattern. Sawicki shows that English courses have long been related to general education for citizenship. Figur, in his study of 1936-50, shows the devotion of Departmental writers to the ideal of democratic citizenship and the use of the classroom as a laboratory for democratic living. Sheane illustrates how the elementary school curriculum has been influenced by the province's need to assimilate all of the various groups of immigrants.

⁷Goresky, p. 78.

III. EMPHASIS AMONG AIMS

No writer other than Figur attempts to show relative emphases among aims for education, and one must gain his emphasis indirectly. Figur indicates that prior to 1936 there was an emphasis upon formal outlines, texts, examinations and teaching procedures, and a corresponding emphasis upon the intellectual aims of education. After 1936, the principles of the activity program were accompanied by the concept of education in a social environment. Experiences in social living should come early in the life of the individual and be continued throughout his school career. "It is the school system which can best provide the young person with the opportunity for taking part in wholesome social activities."⁸ Figur is thus demonstrating that Departmental officials of 1936-50 were giving much more emphasis to social development than they had done previous to 1936. Figur does not assert that social adjustment is considered paramount, but just that it should receive much more consideration. Sheane tends to support Figur's sentiments.

IV. WHO SHOULD BE EDUCATED?

Goresky, Walker and Buckles all show an evolution of Departmental thought concerning high schools. From 1885-1912 the high school's task was to prepare students for the Normal School and the University. With the introduction in a minor way of the elective principle in high school programs in 1901, there began a broadening of these programs which has continued to the present day. In 1914 technical and commercial courses

⁸Figur, p. 3.

were formally introduced by the Department; 1922 brought with it six high school routes (Agricultural, Technical, etc.,). 1924 saw the introduction of the unit system of promotion in high schools. In 1936 and the years following, there were many elective subjects added to the high school program. All of these changes meant that Departmental officials were saying, "The limited academic program of the 1890's is not useful for all students. Many young people can benefit more from some newer subjects (e.g., Psychology, Sociology). Many can benefit more from some education in the fine arts. Many have interests and abilities that can be better served by subjects which are more purely vocational. We will offer the academic student an academic program, and we will maintain a suitable core of academic material for other students while offering them courses more compatible with their interests and abilities."

One other aspect of Departmental thought is evident in Goresky, Sheane and Walker. This is the attempt to provide rural students with opportunities more closely akin to those enjoyed by city and town children.⁹ Consolidated schools, consolidated rural high schools, two-room rural schools, and school division are all evidence of Departmental sentiments and efforts.

V. THE NATURE OF SOCIETY

Goresky and Walker show that Alberta changed steadily over a period of years. Initially the province was sparsely settled by people who lived mostly in the rural areas. With waves of immigration in the early 1900's, the 1920's and the late 1940's, the population increased. The general

⁹Goresky, pp. 123 and 1950; Walker, p. 86.

scientific and technological changes in North American society were observable in Alberta and help to account for the growth of large urban centers and the trend from rural to urban life. Walker also indicates that Alberta constituted one of the last frontiers in North America, and that the people settling in the province were caught up in the general "democratic" influences of the frontier spirit. Thus, elementary and secondary schools developed largely under the public control of one board of trustees in each area. The public also conceived of their society as being an "open" society; the tremendous pressures that have existed for the extension of high school services is directly attributable to the high school's part in advancing pupils towards prestige positions in society.

VI. THE FORM OF THE SCHOOL

Figur and Sheane discuss the form of the school. They appear to indicate that "activism" in Alberta in 1936 was directly related to John Dewey's ideas about the schooling of children: "The new program. . . was quite apparently built on the principles of Dewey."¹⁰ Figur quotes Dewey on Dewey's experimental school:

In the theory of the school, the first factor in bringing about the desired co-ordination was the establishment of the school as itself a form of community life. It was thought that education could prepare the young for future social life only when the school was itself a co-operative society on a small scale. The integration of the individual and the social is impossible except when the individual lives in close association with others in the constant and free give-and-take of experience and finds his happiness and growth in the process of sharing them.¹¹

¹⁰Figur, p. 179.

¹¹Ibid., p. 136ff (quoting Dewey).

It is not completely clear from Figur's work whether Dewey regarded the school as a society in microcosm or not. In any event, the quotation shows us that Dewey considered the school as a form of community life, and as a co-operative society on a small scale. Sheane speaks of the Deweyan idea of a school as a "social laboratory."

VII. THE SCHOOL AND SOCIAL CHANGE

Figur and Sheane assert that the school of 1936-50 was supposed to prepare students to make and adapt to social change. Sawicki says that in 1950 the Department held one of the school's tasks to be the "preservation of the democratic social order."

VIII. EDUCATIONAL IDEAS: A LABEL

Figur and Sheane indicate that Alberta education in 1936-50 could be characterized as "progressive" or "activity" education. Walker speaks of a "traditional" program in the period of 1885-1905, a period of high school expansion in 1905-35 (with a modified traditional program), and a re-organized high school system in 1936-50 with a re-organized program. Thus, Figur and Sheane see Alberta as having had two basic periods of curriculum thought. Walker, on the other hand, is careful to show many periods within the three divisions outlined above, and to show an evolution in educational ideas from 1885-1950; no sharp "break" at any period is in evidence. Goresky also indicates evolution rather than revolution.

IX. BASIC PHILOSOPHY: A LABEL

Walker and Goresky agree that Christian idealism was basic to the

educational ideas of 1885-92. With the disappearance of sectarian control of the school system in 1892, it appears that idealism remained; for example, Sawicki speaks of "reverence" in the 1905 English program. Figur and Sheane hold that Dewey's educational ideas and apparently Dewey's instrumentalism were dominant in 1936-50. Sawicki, however, shows that one Departmental publication in 1950 held religion to be a valuable basis for a philosophy of life. There is conflict here, it seems, between Figur and Sawicki.

X. CHANGE AND THE REASONS FOR CHANGE

Changes in the school program and in educational aims have been many since 1885. The related literature notes at least five general changes that have occurred:

1. Provision has been made for more kinds of students to attend public schools (i.e., state supported schools, Grades I-XII).
2. Provision has been made for more years of schooling per student.
3. Changes have been made in the kinds of subjects and the nature of the subject matter required of students.
4. More flexibility in student programs has been provided in Grades VII-XII particularly. Fewer subjects have been compulsory.
5. There have been more aims for education.

The above changes are related in general to the changing nature of the society of which schools have been a part. First, the twentieth century has ushered in an era acclaimed as "scientific", "technical" and "practical." The literary and mathematical curriculum of the nineteenth

century has had the physical and then the social sciences added to it. Second, since the school system is under democratic political control, it must logically provide in one way or another for the children of the electors. In popular terminology, the curriculum should provide for the "practical" as well as the theoretical. This general political pressure on the school system is re-inforced by the technological trend noted above, and results in a curriculum which makes provision for various kinds of vocational training.

Our twentieth century technology has also made it possible for a few people to grow the food once requiring the labor of many. Urbanization has been one of the results of this achievement. Technology has also reduced the hours of labor for persons both rural and urban. The 1922-25 Alberta statements about training pupils for leisure-time activities are a direct outcome of changes in hours of labor. Training for leisure is scarcely mentioned in 1885.

Walker and Goresky also note the effect of certain pressures more local in nature. Specific political pressures, for example, brought about secular control of the school system in 1892 and therefore a change in the curriculum, courses and texts for sectarian schools. The 1922-36 curriculum changes in Grades VII-XII are attributable to the United Farmers of Alberta who held power in Alberta from 1921-36. This party was concerned about "equality" of opportunity for rural pupils. Walker also indicates that the savage economic depression of the 1930's helped the Social Credit party to bring about changes in school organization and curriculum; economic and social reforms were in the air, and some reform of the school system did not meet the opposition it would have received

in more settled times.

Changes also resulted from altered points of view on the part of educators. The theory of mental discipline was held in serious question by 1922. Views about the social training of students were revised in 1936. At this same time there were also newer views about the most effective way of giving children a grasp of a good body of subject matter, and about motivating the development of fundamental skills.

In speaking about English courses Sawicki says that educational research has brought about changes. For example, the intensive study of a relatively few literature selections has been replaced by an extensive study of a larger number of selections because of studies that have shown that some extensive study profits pupils more in "factors like interest, breadth of reading interests and power to express ideas about reading." Research has also shown the wide range in taste in reading interests, and this has resulted in a wider range of good reading being placed on approved reading lists. Thirdly, research has shown that the intensive study of formal grammar alone does not necessarily make pupils into better writers. While some grammar is useful, it must be combined with much pupil practice in writing. It has also been shown that the hard thinking involved in formal grammar studies and problems does not necessarily transfer to problems in other subject matter areas; thus much of the claim for the mental discipline value of grammar was rejected. Fifth, research has also tended to show that students do better work when they are highly motivated; as a result more of the pupils' speaking and writing activities are now drawn from everyday interests and experiences in which pupils are greatly interested.

Secondly, Sawicki says that educators have realized that much contemporary literature is of an excellent quality as well as of inherent interest to young people; many examples of this type of literature have been added to the lists of classics which have traditionally been found on English courses.

Thirdly, a new view of the matter of correctness in language has become current. It is generally agreed that the proper standard of correctness is the conformity of the language one uses to accepted usage rather than to its adherence to prescriptive rules of grammar.

Fourth, it is recognized that the high school must teach certain reading skills needed at this level; hence a modern emphasis on developmental reading.

In summary, it is possible to assert that changes in the Alberta school system have resulted from an interplay of many complex forces--social, political, economic, educational.

XI. HYPOTHESES

From the related literature it is possible to develop various hypotheses, some of them contradicting others. In the final chapter of this thesis, these hypotheses will be commented upon in the light of the main body of material included in the study. The hypotheses follow:

1. That Alberta has had two main periods of educational thought, pre-1936 and post-1936.
2. That Alberta has had many periods of thought, with a steady change from period to period.
3. That the aims of education in Alberta were relatively narrow

until 1936 and then much broader thereafter.

4. That since 1885 the aims of education have become steadily greater in number and wider in scope.
5. That Alberta was "traditional" in education until 1936 and "progressive" thereafter.
6. That no one term is applicable to Alberta education in the pre-1936 period or the post-1936 period.
7. That Deweyan experimentalism was the philosophy basic to the educational ideas of 1936-50.
8. That the school's function has been to promote change amid order.
9. That the school's function has been to preserve the existing social order.
10. That changes in education resulted basically from changes in ideas held by educators.
11. That changes in education are the result of many general and specific forces reacting together in a complex way.

CHAPTER III

THE BOARD OF EDUCATION, 1885-1892

This chapter will first survey briefly some general political developments in the North West Territories from 1870 to 1892. Trends noted for these years will give suitable background against which to consider in some detail in the latter part of the chapter the educational developments of 1885-1892.

I. POLITICAL DEVELOPMENTS

After Canada's prairie regions were yielded by the Hudson's Bay Company to the government of Canada, and after the formation of the province of Manitoba in 1870, the territories covering most of the area now known as the provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan were governed by the Lieutenant-Governor of Manitoba. In 1875 the Dominion Parliament terminated this arrangement, giving the North West Territories its own system of government through the passage of the North West Territories Act of 1875. The Territories became in effect a colony of the Dominion of Canada, having a Lieutenant-Governor appointed by the federal government and an appointed Council to assist the Governor.¹ The Council was granted the power to deal with matters which were of a local or private matter, such as local taxation, property and civil rights, and police protection.² The Act of 1875 also made provision for the Council's

¹Statutes of Canada, 38 Victoria, c. 48, sec. 3.

²Ibid., sec. 7.

control of education. Section eleven of the Act said that the Lieutenant-Governor with his Council or Assembly "shall pass all necessary ordinances in respect to education."³ A majority of ratepayers in any district could establish such a school as they saw fit, and the minority--whether Protestant or Roman Catholic--could establish separate schools therein. In such established districts the ratepayers would be liable only to such taxation as they imposed upon themselves through their board of trustees. Thus the Act established an over-all control of education by the central political authority, it provided for local administration of district schools, and it gave separate school privileges to religious minorities.⁴ In the 1875 Act, then, the Dominion Government had established in the Territories provisions for education which were to become a permanent part of Alberta's educational scene.

Members of the Dominion Parliament foresaw the time when the residents of the Territories would wish to be self-governing, for the Act provided that as soon as a portion of the territories not more than one thousand square miles in area contained a population of at least a thousand enfranchised persons, it could be set up as an electoral district and permitted to elect a member to the Council. As soon as the number of elected members reached twenty-one, the Council was to be reconstituted as a legislative assembly.⁵ By 1884 the elected outnumbered the appointed members of the Council, and by 1888 the Territories

³Statutes of Canada, 38 Victoria, c. 49, sec. 11.

⁴Harold Theodore Sparby, "A History of the Alberta School System until 1925" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Stanford University, March 1958), p. 36.

⁵Statutes of Canada, 38 Victoria, c. 49, sec. 13.

Act was revised to establish an assembly and a representative system of government.⁶

Responsible government, as the Canadian provinces knew it, had not yet been attained. The Lieutenant-Governor had been virtually independent of his Council in the years 1875 to 1888 since the expenditure of all government monies--most of which came from the Dominion Government in the form of annual grants--was under his personal control. After 1888 he was given power to choose a Council of four members from the Assembly to advise him on financial matters,⁷ but this provision did not satisfy the Assembly since its members wanted full control over territorial finances. After much agitation, and after one Council had resigned, the Dominion Government in 1891 gave the Assembly much of the control it wished.⁸ The Assembly then clarified its own relationship to the Council by passing an ordinance in 1892 in which the Council was renamed the Executive Committee.⁹ This Committee was in effect the first Cabinet of the Territories, and one of its members the first Premier. Thus in a period of seventeen years the Territories had changed from a colony to a partially self-governing entity.¹⁰

⁶Statutes of Canada, 51 Victoria, c. 19. "An Act Respecting the North West Territories 1888."

⁷Ibid., sec. 13.

⁸Statutes of Canada, 54-55 Victoria, c. 22. "An Act to Amend the Acts respecting the North West Territories, 1891."

⁹Ordinances, North West Territories, No. 1 of 1891-92.

¹⁰The Dominion Government, though, still retained power over such matters as credit and natural resources.

The increase in population in the Territories that had brought about some of the political changes noted above also had another aspect. There was a decided change in the composition of the population according to religious denomination. In 1881 there were in the Territories some 4,443 Roman Catholics and 5,242 persons of other sects. By 1891 Catholics were distinctly a minority group, comprising some 13,000 persons in a population of approximately 66,000.¹¹ In one of the educational studies of this period it is noted that the change in religious composition of the Territorial population was a decided factor in changes that took place in the educational system.¹² It is to this system and these changes that we now direct our attention.

II. A CENTRAL EDUCATIONAL AUTHORITY

As has been pointed out in Chapter I, early efforts in education in Alberta were made by religious groups or voluntary bodies. In 1877 a group of settlers at St. Laurent¹³ sent a petition to the North West Council asking for financial assistance in building a school and paying a teacher. The Council replied to the effect that it had no funds available for such purposes. Lieutenant-Governor Laird, though, at the suggestion of his Council, forwarded the St. Laurent petition to Ottawa, asking for funds for education. Finally in 1880 the Minister of the Interior in

¹¹Canada Year Book, 1906, p. 11.

¹²Sparby, op. cit., pp. 81-88. This author points out that with the increasing number of Protestants, there was a trend from religious to secular (political) control of the school system.

¹³A settlement in what is now Saskatchewan.

the Canadian government said in his annual report that \$4,000 had been set aside in aid of schools in the Territories.¹⁴ If a school had a minimum daily attendance of not less than fifteen pupils, the Government would pay one half of the teacher's salary, and a small amount could be expended at the discretion of the Lieutenant-Governor and his Council in constructing and furnishing school houses. On this basis three districts were aided in 1881, fifteen in 1882, eighteen in 1883 and thirty-two in 1884. By 1884, the total amount of aid to districts had reached \$4,524.24.¹⁵

In 1884, the North West Council provided for a central "dual" authority in the Territories, a Board of Education. This Board in its structure resembled the educational authority in the province of Quebec. The whole Board was to make regulations for the general organization of the schools, for the registering and reporting of daily attendance at all schools in the Territories, and for the calling of Board meetings. All school districts as they became established through a petition and favorable votes of district residents would be classified as either Protestant (Public or Separate) or Catholic (Public or Separate), and would elect boards of three trustees. Each section of the Board was to have under its control and management the schools of its denomination; it was to make regulations for their general government and discipline. Each section also had reserved to it the examining, grading and licensing of teachers,

¹⁴Sessional Papers of the Parliament of Canada, Vol. XIV, No. 3, pp. V-VI.

¹⁵Sparby, op. cit., p. 30.

and the choice of books, maps and globes. School inspectors might be appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor or the sections of the Board of Education, but a provision was made in the ordinance "that Protestant and Roman Catholic Schools shall be inspected by officers of their own faith."¹⁶

By an ordinance of 1885 the power to appoint inspectors was reserved to the whole Board of Education, as was the power to examine, grade and license teachers. The specific duties allocated to sections of the Board in 1885 were as follows:

The Board of Education shall resolve itself into two sections, the one consisting of the Protestant, and the other of the Roman Catholic members thereof, and it shall be the duty of each section:

(1) To have under its control and management the schools of its section and to make from time to time such regulations as may be deemed fit for their general government and discipline, and the carrying out of the provisions of this Ordinance;

(2) To cancel the certificate of a teacher upon sufficient cause;

(3) To select, adopt, and prescribe a uniform series of text books to be used in the schools of the section.¹⁷

An amendment to the above ordinance¹⁸ restored power of appointment of school inspectors to the individual sections of the Board. The examination of teachers finally came to rest with a Board of Examiners,

¹⁶Ordinances of the North West Territories, session of 1884, No. 5, Sec. 88.

¹⁷Ordinances of the North West Territories, session of 1885, No. 3, Sec. 6.

¹⁸Ordinances of the North West Territories, session of 1886, No. 10, Sec. 1.

one half of which were nominated by each section of the Board of Education.¹⁹ Each section of the Board of Education also had the power to select the texts for examination of teachers of its religious faith in history and science, and could add additional subjects for teachers of its particular religious faith. Thus, the Roman Catholic section added an examination for teachers in Religious Instruction.²⁰

The first Board of Education was composed of the following individuals:

Chairman:

His Honor the Lieutenant-Governor

Protestant Section:

John Secord, Esq., M. N. W. C., Regina:

Charles Marshallsay, Esq., M. N. W. C., Whitewood.

Catholic Section:

C. B. Rouleau, S.M., M. N. W. C., Calgary

Rev. Father Lacombe, Calgary.²¹

Following its appointment the Board divided the Territories into eleven inspectoral districts, six Protestant and five Catholic, and appointed the following inspectors:

¹⁹The Revised Ordinances of the North West Territories, session of 1888, Chapter 59, Sec. 12.

²⁰See, for example, the February, 1888, examination in Religious Instruction, Report of the Board of Education for the North West Territories, 1887-1888, p. 42.

²¹Report of the Board of Education for the North West Territories, 1885-86, p. 7.

Protestant

Eastern Assiniboia	John Hewgill, Esq.
Western Assiniboia	Thomas Grover, Esq.
Calgary and MacLeod	Rev. John MacLean, B.A.
Edmonton	Rev. A. B. Baird, M.A., B.D.
Battleford	P. G. Laurie, Esq.
Prince Albert	Rev. Canon Flett.

Catholic

Assiniboia	Rev. Father Lebret
Calgary and MacLeod	J. W. Costello, Esq.
Edmonton	Rev. Father Lestance
Battleford	E. E. Richard, Esq.
Prince Albert	Rev. Father Andre. ²²

It is worth noting that six out of the eleven inspectors were clergymen.

The Board of Examiners set up to examine candidates for teaching certificates was also an illustration of the religious influence in education, and of the division of the educational system into two parts. The first board of examiners was composed of the Rev. F. W. Pelly (Protestant), St. John's College, Qu'Appelle, and the Rev. J. Hugonnard (Roman Catholic), Industrial School, Fort Qu'Appelle.²³

The first Board of Education outlined the subjects in which teacher candidates were to be examined, instructed inspectors in their duties, gave the terms upon which provisional teaching certificates could be issued, instructed school boards in seating of pupils and ventilation

²²Ibid., p. 8.

²³Ibid., pp. 8-9. The Board of Education in 1888 came to consist of five Protestants and three Catholics, and the Board of Examiners to consist of two Protestants and two Catholics; clergymen's names are mentioned often in the changes of membership on these boards. For example, The Right Reverend the Bishop of Saskatchewan and Calgary was Chairman of the Board of Education, 1888-90.

of school buildings, and authorized school texts for the respective religious groups.²⁴

The Board of Education, shortly after its organization, came to have a set of duties toward a rapidly growing kind of school district, one that was not designated either as Catholic or Protestant, but simply as "public". An Ordinance of the North West Council of 1886 gave to the Board as a whole all of the powers respecting these non-sectarian schools that each section of the Board had enjoyed with respect to its own denominational group.²⁵ Thus the Board of Education had all general powers over the schools; it also had certain general powers over denominational schools, with separate sections of the Board exercising the remaining powers in relation to their respective denominations.²⁶ In effect, then, the Territories had three authorities for three different kinds of schools. As is obvious, however, there was still a "dual" religious system, both at the local school district level and in the central educational authority.

Two of the trends toward the secularization of the educational system have been mentioned, the shifting of certain powers from sections of the Board to the whole Board, and the organization of school districts on a non-sectarian basis. In 1891 the Assembly reserved to the Lieutenant-Governor in Council the power of appointing all school inspectors. The culmination of the movement toward secularization came in 1892 when

²⁴Ibid., pp. 9-17.

²⁵Ordinances, North West Territories, No. 10 of 1886, Sec. 1.

²⁶As mentioned earlier in this chapter.

the Board of Education was abolished. In its place there was established a Council of Public Instruction, one body for the general government of all schools.²⁷ This Council had as its executive officer a Superintendent of Education for the Territories.²⁸

III. FEATURES OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Classification and Organization

The Territories followed a practice used in some of the older Canadian provinces of classifying pupils by Standards. During the first few years of the Board of Education system, the schools taught to the level of Standard V, or to the end of the "common" school. With the authorization of high schools by the Legislative Assembly in 1888 the Board of Education prepared a course of studies for Standard VI.²⁹ The entrance examinations to the "High School Branch" were to be as follows:

There shall be papers set on reading, spelling, composition, writing, arithmetic, grammar, geography, history, and elementary English literature, book-keeping (single entry) as prescribed in Standard V of the Programme of Studies for Protestant Schools, and in the "Superior Course" in the Programme of Studies for Roman Catholic Schools.³⁰

One year later the Board of Education changed the allocation of standards as between "common" and high schools:

²⁷Ordinances, North West Territories, session of 1892, No. 22. Chapter IV will give relevant details concerning the Council.

²⁸Ibid.

²⁹Report of the Board of Education for the North West Territories, 1888-89, p. 7.

³⁰Ibid., p. 6. Roman Catholic Schools had three main divisions, Primary, Intermediate and Superior.

Standard V, which is the highest standard in the Public School, has been made the first standard in the High School Branch. Some changes have been made in it, and also in Standard VI, and it is proposed to add a higher standard during the early part of next year. . . .³¹

With this change, the entrance examinations to the high school grades were based on the work of Standard IV of the Protestant schools and of the Intermediate course of studies for Roman Catholic schools.³²

Curriculum

In its first set of instructions to school inspectors, the Board of Education stressed the place of the Three R's in education:

The Board attaches great importance to the School "Time Table." Reading, Writing and Arithmetic are to be taught once at least every day to every child of the age of seven years and over. There is no objection to drawing being alternated with writing, once during the week.³³

Section 83 of a School Ordinance of 1887 specified more completely the number of subjects to be placed in the common school curriculum:

All schools shall be taught and instruction given in the following branches, viz: Reading, writing, orthography, arithmetic, geography, grammar, history of England and Canada, English literature and such other studies as may be deemed necessary, may be authorized by the trustees of the district. Instructions shall be given during the entire school course in manners and morals and the laws of health, and due attention shall be given to such physical exercises for the pupils as may be conducive to health and vigour of body, as well as mind, and to the ventilation and temperature of school rooms.³⁴

³¹Report of the Board of Education for the North West Territories, 1889-90, pp. 6-7.

³²Report of the Board of Education for the North West Territories, 1890-91, p. 19.

³³Report of the Board of Education for the North West Territories, 1885-86, p. 11.

³⁴School Laws and Other Educational Matters in Assiniboia, Prince Edward Island, the North West Territories and Manitoba, Ottawa, Government Printing Bureau, 1894, p. 134.

In 1888, entrance examinations to high school were to be given in these subjects: reading, spelling, composition, writing, arithmetic, grammar, geography, history, elementary English literature and single entry bookkeeping.³⁵

In 1889-90, the Board of Education added an optional subject to the curriculum for schools under control of the Protestant section of the Board. In the amendments to its programme of studies, the Protestant section made a concession to the domestic arts by saying:

Add also the following as an optional subject, "Needlework and &., " and read, "One hour per week may be devoted to teaching needlework and &., at the discretion of the Trustees."³⁶

In March of 1890 a circular issued by the Board of Education re-enforced a clause found in the 1887 school ordinance quoted above:

Calisthenics will, in future, be an essential subject and must be taught in all schools in accordance with. . .the School Ordinance which provides that: Instruction shall be given during the entire school course in. . .the laws of health, and due attention will be given to such physical exercises for the pupil as may be conducive to health and vigor of body, as well as mind. . . .

Trustees, when engaging teachers, should be careful to secure the services of parties competent to teach this subject.³⁷

There appears to have been much variation in the curriculum offered in the different schools of the Territorial inspectorates. Extracts from the Inspectors' Reports for the first term of 1890 show the subjects being taught in each classroom and the number of pupils enrolled in each subject.³⁸ In the Protestant schools of Central Alberta, the

³⁵Report of the Board of Education for the North West Territories, 1888-89, p. 6.

³⁶Report of the Board of Education for the North West Territories, 1889-90, p. 13.

³⁷Ibid., p. 5. ³⁸Ibid., pp. 65 ff.

subjects taught by most teachers were these:

Reading
Spelling
Composition
Writing
Arithmetic
Grammar
Geography
History

There were sixteen teachers in this inspectorate. Of this number six did not teach spelling, five composition, four grammar, two geography, five history. Only one teacher (in the high school room at Calgary) taught literature. With respect to other subjects on the curriculum, five teachers taught bookkeeping, six drawing, three music, five drill and calisthenics, six ethics, four algebra, two geometry, and one needlework.

In the Roman Catholic Union School at Calgary, there was no spelling, composition, grammar, or drill and calisthenics taught in the first term of 1890. All one hundred and fifteen pupils studied reading, writing, arithmetic, and music; about half of the students studied geography, drawing and French, about thirty took history and needlework, about twenty took literature and bookkeeping, and thirteen took algebra, geometry and Latin.

In a number of classrooms in the Territories, the teachers had not obeyed the Board's edict concerning the teaching of reading, writing and arithmetic each day; thirteen of the teachers did not teach writing in the first term of 1890. There is no record of either the Board's or the Inspectors' reactions to this situation.

The records of 1890 also show that certain additional subjects

were taught in a few schools:

Physiology (Four schools, seventy-six pupils)
 Botany (one school, twenty-two pupils)
 Statics (one school, one pupil)
 Physics (one school, one pupil)
 Chemistry (one school, one pupil)
 Greek (one school, one pupil)
 Natural Philosophy (one school, nineteen pupils)
 Hygiene (one school, six pupils)
 Bible History (one school, ninety-eight pupils)
 Domestic Economy (one school, sixteen pupils)
 Etiquette (one school, fifty-one pupils)³⁹

In the 1890-91 Report of the Board of Education, there is evidence that the Board was prepared to add further to the general curriculum:

At the suggestion of Your Honor (the Lieutenant Governor), and realizing with you the great importance of assigning to agriculture the importance it should justly have in this country, the Board has made this subject an optional bonus subject, not only in the curriculum for Teachers' examinations, but in the subjects of examination for entrance to the High School Branch of Union Schools, and also assigned it a place in Standard IV of the programme of studies for all schools.

To show how the action of the Board was appreciated, it may be mentioned that of the 115 pupils who wrote at the entrance examination, 96 took the subject, and in the Teachers' examination, 111 out of 126 candidates took it.⁴⁰

By 1891 the entrance examinations to high school standards had been grouped as follows:

Group I - Geography and History
 Group II - Composition, Grammar and Literature
 Group III - Arithmetic and Book-keeping
 Group IV - Reading, Writing and Dictation
 Group V - Agriculture and Drawing (optional)

The subjects were grouped in this way, apparently, in order to aid

³⁹Ibid., p. 78. This listing includes subjects for high schools as well as elementary schools.

⁴⁰Report of the Board of Education for the North West Territories, 1890-91, p. 5.

in the formation of the promotion policy. To pass the entrance examination a candidate was supposed to gain twenty per cent of the marks attached to each subject, thirty-five per cent of the marks attached to each group, and fifty per cent of the total number of marks.⁴¹

The high school curriculum was distinguished by two related features: It was an extension upward of the curriculum employed in lower standards, and it was identified closely with teacher training in the Territories. The 1888-89 outline for Standard VI shows the general nature of the high school course:

6. The following shall be the course of studies in the High School Branch of Union Schools:-

(a) For Protestant Schools.

Standard VI.

Reading - Sixth Reader with recitations.

Spelling - From reading lessons and dictation.

Composition - Further extension of the subject from Standard V.

Writing - The subject continued.

Arithmetic - The whole of Kirkland & Scott's Arithmetic.

Grammar - A thorough knowledge of Mason's Outlines of English Grammar.

Geography - Map Geography generally, with Canada and the British Empire more particularly; map drawing.

History - A review of English and Canadian History.

Canadian Literature.

Book-keeping - Single and Double entry.

Drawing - Reading's High School Course commenced.

Calisthenics and Drill - The subject continued.

Algebra - To the end of simple equations.

Geometry - Euclid, Definitions and Book I.

Latin - Smith's Principia Latina, Part I., or Harkness' Introductory Latin Book.

French - Fasquelle's Lessons in French.

(b) For Roman Catholic Schools.

Review of Intermediate Course.

⁴¹Ibid., p. 20.

Superior Course commenced and continued.
 Geography-General: Canada and the British Empire more particularly: map drawing.
 Canadian Literature - Withrow and Adam.
 Calisthenics and Drill - Continued.
 French - Fasquelle's Lessons in French.
 Latin - Smith's Principia Latina Part I., or Harkness' Introductory Latin Book.⁴²

It will be noted that Algebra, Geometry, Latin and French are additions to the "common" school program. There is evidence of the close connection of the high school with lower standards in such phrases as "Further extension of the subject from Standard V," "The subject continued," "A review of English and Canadian history"; and while the high school entrance examination asked for a knowledge of single entry book-keeping, the high school course specifies both single and double entry. One historian of this period notes, too, that "Many of the texts used in the lower high school standards were the same as those used in the upper elementary school standards. The study of English was the main part of the program in both elementary and high school."⁴³ The same author also indicates that each student in high school pursued a load of twelve or more subjects.⁴⁴

The Territorial need for elementary school teachers made it convenient for the Board of Education to order as early as 1889-90, that "The subjects of Standard V constitute the subjects of examination for

⁴²Ibid., p. 7.

⁴³Bernal E. Walker, "The High School Program in Alberta During The Territorial Period, 1889-1905," The Alberta Journal of Educational Research, Vol. II, No. 1 (March, 1956), p. 10.

⁴⁴Ibid., p. 16.

candidates for third class certificates; and those of Standard VI, except Latin and French, the subjects for second class."⁴⁵ The close continuity between elementary and secondary school programs (noted immediately above), meant that the high school was an institution where review and drill in certain subjects⁴⁶ better prepared students to teach school.

In 1891 the high school subjects were grouped for teachers' examinations as the following list indicates (Group IV in each case includes the professional subjects to be written):

(a) Third Class.

- Group I - Geography and History.
- Group II - Grammar, Composition and Literature
- Group III - Arithmetic, Algebra, Geometry and Book-keeping.
- Group IV - Science and Art of Teaching.
- Group V - Reading, Writing and Dictation.
- Group VI - Agriculture and Drawing (optional).

(b) First and Second Classes.

- Group I - Geography and History.
- Group II - Grammar, Composition and Literature.
- Group III - Arithmetic, Algebra, Geometry and Book-keeping.
- Group IV - Science and Art of Teaching, School Law, and Physiology and Hygiene.
- Group V - Reading, Writing and Dictation.
- Group VI - Botany, Chemistry, Statics, Hydrostatics and Physics.
- Group VII - Drawing (optional for second class).
- Group VIII - Agriculture, Latin and French (optional).

18. In order to pass the examination a candidate must obtain the following percentage of marks:

(a) Third Class

⁴⁵Report of the Board of Education, North West Territories, 1889-90, p. 7.

⁴⁶For example, reading, spelling, composition, writing, grammar, literature, arithmetic, history, geography.

Twenty per cent of the marks attached to each of the subjects of examination; thirty-five per cent of the marks attached to each group of subjects; and fifty per cent of the total number of marks.

(b) First or Second Class - Grade "B"

Twenty per cent of the marks attached to each of the subjects of examination; thirty-five per cent of the marks attached to each group of subjects; and fifty per cent of the total number of marks.

(c) First or Second Class - Grade "A"

Thirty-five per cent of the marks attached to each of the subjects of examination; fifty per cent of the marks attached to each group of subjects; and seventy per cent of the total number of marks.⁴⁷

The general nature of the whole curriculum in Territorial schools seems to be clear; the program was an "academic" one. There were several vocational subjects such as bookkeeping and agriculture. The fine arts were represented by some drawing and a little music. Needlework could be offered at the trustees' discretion. But the bulk of the program lay in such traditional academic courses as geography, history, algebra and grammar.

Texts and References

As the section on "Curriculum" has indicated, there was usually a prescription of one text for each subject. Evidence indicates that a number of these texts were originally prescribed and used in Ontario.

Courses of Study

The prescription of course material was made in as few words as

⁴⁷Report of the Board of Education, North West Territories, 1890-91, p. 11.

possible, often consisting (as has been seen) of such phrases as "The subject continued," or "a thorough knowledge of Mason's Outlines of English Grammar." It is apparent that texts often constituted courses; when no text was prescribed the teacher was expected to review previous course materials, or to push on into the subject himself. In this latter case, the Board's examinations offered a guide to necessary course coverage.

Final Examinations

In preparation for examinations students were expected to make an intensive study of a certain text or of certain selections in texts, and to recall much of the detail of their study in response to examination questions. For example, Roman Catholic candidates for high school entrance in 1891 answered the following questions in Literature (Time--2 hours):

LITERATURE⁴⁸

R. C. Candidates

Time--2 hours.

Examiners: Rev. H. Leduc, B.A., Rev. John McLean, M.A., Ph.D.

1. Give a sketch of the life of the author of "Loss and Gain."
2. Give a short description of "The Alhambra by Moonlight."
3. Define the distinction between Patriotism and Christianity, showing the influence of the latter on the former.
4. Explain the following expressions: "For want of the reality we try to feed upon dreams." "A man is homesick." Exaggerated,

⁴⁸Report of the Board of Education, North West Territories, 1890-91, Appendix VI, p. 147.

intrinsic, energetic, paternal, domestic.

Give the roots of the two last words.

5. Give three of the most remarkable passages of "The dying child on New Year's Eve."

6. Give the principal figures of the poem:- "Who is my neighbour?"

All candidates in Geography were required to answer these questions:

GEOGRAPHY⁴⁹

All Candidates

Time--1½ hours.

Examiners: Rev. H. Leduc, B.A., Rev. Dr. McLean, M.A., Ph.D.

1. The earth is called a sphere, give proof for this statement.

2. Define: Peninsula, Volcano, Plain, Tributary, Lake.

3. Mention the principal industries of Canada, stating also the mineral productions.

4. Name the principal lakes, mountains and rivers of Europe. Give also chief cities on this continent.

5. Draw an outline map of the Dominion of Canada, locating Provinces.

6. Locate the following: Melbourne, Tchad, Comorin, San Lucas, Buffalo, Hoang Ho, Buenos Ayres.

7. Give the physical features of South America.

High school examinations showed the examiners' same demands for recall and for detail. The Drawing examination of 1891 for a first class teacher's certificate is a good example.

1. Explain what do you understand by the terms "Reduction" and "Enlargement" in drawing.

⁴⁹Ibid., p. 149.

2. Describe memory drawing and explain its uses.
3. Describe the method for dividing a line into any given number of parts.
4. Draw a line parallel to a given line from any point above the line.
5. Explain the terms "foil," "trefoil," "quatrefoil," "ellipse," "oval," "symmetry," "repose," "balance," and "breadth."
6. Draw a vase illustrating the variations of the Ogee curve.
7. How does symmetrical arrangement on an axis differ from symmetrical arrangement about a centre?
8. Draw a water bottle using only simple curves and straight lines.⁵⁰

The history examination of 1891 for a third class certificate (Standard V) ranged widely over both British and Canadian history, but candidates were expected to know much specific information. The examination does not show any need for a student to express any personal judgment about historical events; the paper simply requires him to repeat what his text has told him:⁵¹

HISTORY

Third Class--All Candidates

Time--2½ hours

Examiners: Rev. H. Leduc, B.A., Rev. John McLean, M.A., Ph.D.

1. What was the Doomsday Book?

⁵⁰ Ibid., p. 154.

⁵¹ Ibid., p. 161. In a number of cases the text was the course. Thus there appear such statements for courses as "The whole of Kirkland and Scott's Arithmetic," "A thorough knowledge of Mason's Outline of English Grammar," "Euclid, Definitions and Part I," "Fasquelle's Lessons in French."

2. What were the wars of Stephen's reign?
3. When was the Magna Charta granted and what are its provisions?
4. Who was Llewellyn? What was his fate?
5. What was the fate of Charles I?
6. By whom and when was Quebec founded?
7. What company was formed by Richelieu in 1627 and what were they bound to do for the Colony?
8. Give an account of Talon, and state some of his measures for increasing the Colony.
9. What was the substance of the Treaty of February 10th, 1763, respecting Canada and the other French possessions in America?
10. State the principal events of the rebellion of 1837.

Promotion Policy

In the lower standards of the schools, pupils were promoted at the teachers' judgment. In the upper standards, Board examinations were used. Subjects were grouped in a way already described and pupils had to secure a certain percentage of marks in subjects, in groups of subjects, and in the total program. A First Class Teacher's certificate required much better marks than a second or third Class

Teaching Procedures

The evidence presented in various publications of the 1885-92 period indicates that instruction was supposed to be carried on mainly through teacher exposition and explanation. The teacher's lessons were strengthened through regular drills, through "busy work," and through the pupils' individual study. Since maps, supplies and equipment were meagre, the teacher and the class depended upon texts or upon whatever material a

teacher could develop. As later quotations in this chapter show, the school inspectors looked for system, thoroughness and efficiency.

IV. AIMS FOR THE SCHOOL

The preceding sections of this chapter have shown to some degree what the Board of Education considered desirable. Inspectors' reports give some further indication of the educational atmosphere of the period:

A very intelligent course of teaching is pursued by the Sisters in charge. The method of imparting instruction in the various branches is one calculated to strengthen the pupils' powers of observation, refine the taste and excite enthusiasm for serious study.⁵²

In one case the trustees thought it wise to let the teacher go at the end of a month being altogether too boyish to control the scholars.⁵³

The most urgent necessity (for teachers), however, is for professional training. The lack of such training becomes most apparent in misdirected efforts of the teacher, in failure to make the best use of his time, in the total absence of a plan of teaching.⁵⁴

The order is good and is secured with gentleness.⁵⁵

There is considerable improvement in order since my last visit, yet the order should be greatly improved.⁵⁶

The programme of studies shows Drill, Calisthenics and Ethics as essential subjects. The Board of Education requires that every teacher should present a certificate of good moral character and I have always considered that the character of a teacher along with incidental effort are the best means wherewith to teach Ethics.⁵⁷

⁵²Report of the Board of Education for the North West Territories, 1885-86, p. 32.

⁵³Report of the Board of Education for the North West Territories, 1890-91, Appendix III, p. 1.

⁵⁴Ibid., p. 2. ⁵⁵Ibid., p. 7. ⁵⁶Ibid., p. 7. ⁵⁷Ibid., p. 14.

The children show considerable powers of thought.⁵⁸

Devices for busy work are many and good.⁵⁹

The teacher's lack of firmness allows the children too much liberty; yet they are making a little progress. It is a difficult matter to maintain order in this village.⁶⁰

Some exercises of the school well planned, well conducted.⁶¹

The old style of fifty years ago, "go and learn the page, etc." is in vogue. Rather funny to set a class of Metis who can only read and scarcely understand to study a page of Grammar and then call them up and ask questions from the books, etc.⁶²

Reading, spelling and meaning of words are well taught.⁶³

The subjects are grounded thoroughly in the minds of the pupils.⁶⁴

Mr. Milne's teaching is clear and systematic, while his characteristics of disposition appear to enhance his efficiency.⁶⁵

. . . Miss Brogden always strikes me as efficient. . . . Work well laid out. Good order with more than the average amount of industry on the part of the scholars.⁶⁶

His aptitude to teach is very good though slightly spoiled by superficiality. . . . There is too much attempt for effect.⁶⁷

I then asked them a few questions and found they had not the least idea of what 7 per cent meant. They were simply following a rule. . . . The (teacher's) treatment of arithmetic shows him to be very superficial and lazy.⁶⁸

From the above quotations, and what has been said previously in this chapter, it is possible to indicate briefly what it was that the school was supposed to do for the child. In some instances the evidence

⁵⁸Ibid., p. 29. ⁵⁹Ibid., p. 36.

⁶⁰Ibid., p. 39. (In reference to a school room in Medicine Hat.)

⁶¹Ibid., p. 40. ⁶²Ibid., p. 52. ⁶³Ibid., p. 52.

⁶⁴Ibid., p. 132. ⁶⁵Ibid., p. 21. ⁶⁶Ibid.

⁶⁷Ibid., p. 25. ⁶⁸Ibid., p. 28.

is scanty; in some it is not stated directly and conclusions must be developed by inference. The aims for the school appear to be the following:

1. Intellectual Development.
 - (a) The Three R's
 - (b) A Body of Knowledge
 - (c) A Grasp of General Principles
 - (d) Development of Reasoning Power
 - (e) Development of Powers of Observation
2. Physical Health.
3. Aesthetic Development.
4. Religious Knowledge and Development.
5. Vocational Preparation.
6. Mental Health.
7. Morality and Good Character.
8. Social Behavior.
9. Preparation for Home and Family Life.
10. Development of Citizenship.

In intellectual development, the three R's received heavy emphasis. Examination papers also showed the Board's desire that students should receive a good body of subject matter; there is relatively little emphasis upon general principles. Reasoning power seems to consist in the main of being able to re-trace the steps in reasoning followed by a teacher or a text. Such subjects as science and drawing were supposed to help develop powers of observation.

There was a concern for the physical health of the student.

Ventilation of school buildings was important. So was physical exercise (which had become an essential subject).

Aesthetic development took place in literature and in whatever drawing and music the schools taught.

Religious knowledge was obviously a part of any system which was organized as strongly along religious lines as was the Board of Education.

Vocational preparation was given most strongly to pupils intending to become teachers. Some bookkeeping and agriculture were also offered, but since these were single subjects in the midst of an academic program, one can scarcely say that they gave much vocational preparation.

The authors of the School Ordinance of 1887 intimated that physical exercise might be conducive to health of mind as well as body, but the hint about mental health is not elaborated upon in other documents of the period.

The pupil was to be taught manners and morals. Ethics was a regular school subject.⁶⁹

In social behavior the pupil was expected to be diligent in his studies, respectful and courteous to his teacher, and considerate of his fellow students.

Preparation for home and family life was provided for through a single subject, needlework, which might be taught as an optional subject

⁶⁹Note, for instance, the Writing and Dictation examination for High School entrance in 1891. Students were reminded that ". . . in the voyage of this life, on the ocean of time, our compass is our conscience, placed in the circular box of the heart and all enclosed in the binnacle of the breast: if we watch it, we can never go astray."

for one hour a week. Records also show that in 1889-90 one school taught Domestic Economy, and one taught Etiquette.

Loyalty to Queen and country was an integral part of the school's training for citizenship.

V. EMPHASIS AMONG AIMS

The following chart shows on the left the emphasized aims for the school; on the right the chart shows the aims that were stressed to a lesser degree.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. Intellectual Development | |
| The Three R's | |
| A Body of Knowledge | A Grasp of General Principles |
| Development of Powers of Observation | Development of Reasoning Power |
| 2. Physical Health | |
| | 3. Aesthetic Development |
| 4. Religious Knowledge and Development | |
| | 5. Vocational Preparation |
| | 6. Mental Health |
| 7. Morality and Good Character | |
| 8. Social Behavior | |
| | 9. Preparation for Home and Family Life |
| 10. Development of Citizenship | |

VI. WHO SHOULD BE EDUCATED?

Shortly after its formation the Board of Education established not only public school standards, but also the first standards of high school. In this way it showed that it was interested in providing education

beyond the "common school." It is true that very few centers could take advantage of the high school provisions--population in the Territories was sparse. However, the principle was early established. The total school program was academic in nature and thus provided for development of academic abilities. Particularly at the high school level, the program would act in such a way as to screen out those who were not able to absorb this particular kind of academic program.

VII. THE NATURE OF SOCIETY

Board of Education reports for 1885-92 do not contain direct comment as to what kind of society it was that existed in the period under discussion. The rapidly increasing number of rural school districts being formed is testimony to immigration in the North West Territories, and this is evidence of changing material conditions. But social, economic and religious thought appear to be stable; immigrants were either bringing an established pattern with them or were conforming to the developing pattern in the Territories; no commentator, for instance, speaks of the need to reform the school system in order to keep up with changing times.⁷⁰ As far as the evidence is concerned, then, the Board of Education appeared to be operating in a fairly stable, predominantly rural society.

⁷⁰High school grades were added, and agitation begun for a university--but these were extensions of the educational system, not reforms of it. In addition, the change from a "dual" to a non-sectarian system in 1892 was the outcome of a political struggle between two factions in Christianity; it was not a denial by either group of its own tenets, or an assertion that society was any less Christian.

VIII. THE FORM OF THE SCHOOL

As has been indicated above, the teacher was supposed to be concerned about his pupil's scholarship, health, manners and morals. There is, however, no direct evidence to indicate either that the school was an institution set apart from society in order to do an essential task for that society, or that the school was considered to be a community in miniature. It would appear that, whatever its form, the school was conceived of as giving a student a good preparation for his adult life.

IX. THE SCHOOL AND SOCIAL CHANGE

Again, there was no direct evidence given with regard to the school and social change. All that one can hazard is that insofar as Christianity is committed to a changed and changing society, thus far was the school of 1885-92 committed.⁷¹

X. EDUCATIONAL IDEAS: A LABEL

No individual in this period thought it necessary to develop a "label" for the set of educational ideas that predominated. From the vantage point of the 1960's, one might say that the schools of 1885-92 appear to be what various writers of the 1900's like to call "traditional" or "formal". Even in this, one must be careful, for many who use the word "traditional" use it with scorn. Certainly the schools of 1885-92 had a relatively narrow curriculum, closely prescribed texts and subject-

⁷¹As the following section indicates, schools of this period were committed to a basic philosophy of Christian idealism.

matter, and little indication of varied teaching procedures. On the other hand, the schools had much broader aims than are usually ascribed to them.

XI. BASIC PHILOSOPHY: A LABEL

Behind the educational ideas enumerated above lay all of the arrangements and ideas involved in an educational system organized on sectarian lines. The Board of Education, the school inspectors, the Board of Examiners, local school districts--all were divided into two groups, Protestant and Catholic. Some of the examinations for high school entrance and teacher certification showed the religious division, too.⁷²

Explicit statements of religious conviction were associated with the "dual" system. Section 7 of the Regulations of the Board of Education, adopted 15th March, 1888, specified the following:

. . . teachers are required: . . .

(2) To enforce by precept, and example, habits of punctuality, neatness, cleanliness, and order; to observe and impress upon the pupils the principles and morals of the Christian religion, especially those of truth, honesty, piety and humanity; and the duty of respect and obedience to parents and to all persons placed in authority over them. . . .⁷³

⁷²For example, Protestant and Catholic candidates for high school entrance wrote different Literature and History examinations in 1891. Candidates for third class certificates wrote dissimilar Literature exams in the same year. Because Protestants and Catholics used different series of readers, the Reading examinations were always different, no matter what the year.

⁷³School Laws and Other Educational Matters in Assiniboia, Prince Edward Island, the North West Territories and Manitoba, Ottawa, Government Printing Bureau, 1894, p. 168.

In 1888 the Protestant section of the Board passed a regulation bearing upon moral training and religious exercises:

4. Besides using the time for moral training definitely set apart in the program, the teacher is expected to take advantage of such occasions as arise during the whole course of study for the inculcation of these matters, and he is expected also to support his instructions by his personal example and authority. The religious exercises of the school should be conducted without haste and with the utmost reverence and decorum.⁷⁴

The Protestant section also outlined a course of study in ethics, as follows:

Standard I - Conversations on the duty of believing in, fearing and loving God, cleanliness and neatness; Honesty, truthfulness and obedience.

Standard II - Subject continued; avoidance of impure and profane language.

Standard III - Subject continued; respect to parents and persons in authority, cultivation of courteous and modest behavior at all times; how to be useful and honorable. Lessons on temperance; how to play in such a way as to promote health.

Standard IV - Subject continued; reverence for all sacred things; integrity, manliness, unselfishness, self-control, forgiveness of injuries, thrift, perseverance. The laws of health, including the nature and effects of alcohol on the system.

Standard V - Subject continued; self denial, self-respect, courteous behavior to the opposite sex; the avoidance of bad habits; cultivation of a cheerful disposition; the duty of doing to others as we would be done by. Loyalty to Queen and country.⁷⁵

Although the whole of education was set in a religious context, specific religious instruction in public schools was supposed to be limited to a period of time at the end of the school day. The School

⁷⁴Ibid., p. 175.

⁷⁵Ibid., p. 176. An examination of the extracts from Inspectors' Reports in 1890 reveals that 106 out of 143 Protestant teachers had placed Ethics on the school timetable.

Ordinance quoted in the 1885-86 Report of the Board of Education, gives the general regulation:

No religious instruction, such as Bible reading, or reciting, or reading or reciting prayers, or asking questions or giving answers from any catechism, is permitted in any public school in the North West Territories from the opening of such school at nine o'clock in the forenoon until the hour of three o'clock in the afternoon, after which time any instruction permitted or desired by the trustees of the district, may be given.

How this regulation might be related to "taking advantage of such occasions as arise during the whole course of study for the inculcation of (moral training)," the Board did not say.

It should be noted that schools organized as specifically "Protestant" or "Catholic" (not "public") could give religious instruction at any time and for any period of time during the day.

XII. SUMMARY

The history of settlement on the prairies and the religious composition of the population made it natural for the Dominion Government to recognize Christian idealism as a vital factor in Territorial education, and to transfer to the West the educational "solutions" already worked out in Quebec. The division in religious belief between Catholics and non-Catholics resulted not only in provision for separate schools at a local level, but also in 1885 in a dual authority at the Territorial level: the Board of Education, the Board of Examiners, and the school inspectors were divided into two groups on a religious basis. As the Territorial population changed in composition from largely Catholic to largely Protestant, and as the Territories gained responsible government, there was a tendency to limit the powers of the separate

sections of the dual central authority; finally in 1892 the Board of Education was abolished and control of education placed in the hands of the Executive Committee (Cabinet). Control was henceforth to be non-sectarian, though provisions existed for separatism at a local district level.

During the period of Board of Education control, 1885-1892, Christianity was supposed to infuse the curriculum and determine the behavior of both teachers and pupils. Educators were concerned with a broad range of aims for the school. They thought that the school should contribute mainly to children's development in intellect, in physical health, in religious knowledge, in morality and good character, in social behavior and in citizenship.

CHAPTER IV

THE COUNCIL OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION 1892-1901

This chapter will first outline briefly some developments in political thought affecting both Territorial government and the central authority in Territorial education. Then the greater part of the chapter will be devoted to the educational thought of the 1892-1901 period.

I. POLITICAL DEVELOPMENTS

In Chapter III it was indicated that by 1891 the agitation in the North West Territories for responsible government had resulted in a form of Cabinet government. In 1891 an Executive Committee was formed; it had no formal premier, and it operated under financial restrictions placed on it by the Federal Government. Finally, after more years of intense agitation, the North West finally secured formal recognition of responsible government in the Territories. A measure, introduced in the House of Commons by Sir Clifford Sifton, provided that after October 1, 1897, the Executive Council of the Territories should be chosen by the Lieutenant-Governor in accordance with the well-understood principles of responsible government. The Territories still did not possess full provincial powers,¹ but the powers they did enjoy they administered henceforth through responsible ministers. Agitation for provincial autonomy, which had long been a feature of Territorial politics, did not cease until

¹For example, control of natural resources rested with the Federal government.

formation of the provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan in 1905.

II. THE CENTRAL EDUCATIONAL AUTHORITY

Concurrent with the controversy concerning responsible government was another internal issue of importance to the Territories, the form of control to be exerted over the educational system. As Byrne notes:

After the establishment of representative government in 1888, the administration of territorial schools became a subject of bitter controversy in the North West Assembly. The issue lay between the supporters of a national or common system of schools and those advocating the retention of separation along sectarian lines in public education.²

Chapter III of this study noted how the North West Council and then the Assembly had gradually reduced the powers of the separate sections of the Board of Education.³ Finally, in 1892, the Assembly abolished the Board of Education completely. In its stead there was constituted a Council of Public Instruction. The Council had as its membership the Executive Committee (Cabinet) of the Legislative Assembly, in addition to which there was to be an advisory committee of two Protestants and two Roman Catholics appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council. These latter four individuals acted in an advisory capacity only; they had no vote in the proceedings of the Council. However, as some safeguard for sectarian interests, the Ordinance of

²Timothy C. Byrne, "The Historical Development and Evaluation of Provincial Leadership in the Field of High School Instruction in the Province of Alberta" (unpublished Doctor of Education thesis, Colorado University, 1956), p. 110.

³By allowing formation of public non-sectarian schools, by reserving teacher certification to the whole Board, and by giving power of appointment of school inspectors to the Lieutenant Governor in Council.

1892⁴ indicated that while the Executive Committee or any sub-committee of it could constitute a quorum of the Council of Public Instruction, no regulations regarding the following could be adopted or amended except at a general meeting of the Council: management and discipline of schools; examining, grading and licensing of teachers; the selection of texts; the inspection of schools; normal school training.⁵

The full powers of the Council were as follows:

- (a) To make regulations for the government and discipline of schools and institutes, and for the training and certification of teachers;
- (b) To prescribe programmes of study and text books;
- (c) To define by "Standards" the studies to be pursued in all schools, such standards to be numbered from I upward, standards above Standard V to be further denominated "High School Standards";
- (d) To provide for the examination of persons other than teachers who may desire to enter professions or who may wish certificates of having completed courses of study in any school.
- (e) To prepare suitable form and give such instructions as may be necessary for making all reports and conducting all proceedings required by the Ordinance.
- (f) To determine all cases of appeal, disputes, and complaints, arising from decisions of trustees or inspectors and to make such orders thereon as may be required.
- (g) To make any provisions, not inconsistent with the Ordinance, that may be necessary to meet exigencies occurring under its operation.⁶

⁴Ordinances, North West Territories, session of 1892, No. 22.

⁵Report of the Council of Public Instruction of the North West Territories of Canada, 1896, p. 8. (Also 1896, "In all Standards above II the text books are uniform, care being taken to authorize none from a sectarian standpoint." p. 11.)

⁶Ibid., p. 9. In 1896, the Council consisted of the four members of the Executive Committee, and of the Bishop of Saskatchewan and Calgary,

The Catholic hierarchy and some of the Catholic laity took strong exception to the abolition of the Board of Education. They considered completely inadequate the 1892 Ordinance which had abolished the "dual" system and had made provision for separatism only at the local level; they petitioned the Governor-General to disallow the 1892 legislation and so to restore sectarian control of schools, texts, and courses of study at a central level. They protested the 1892 regulation which would require all prospective teachers (including members of religious orders) to show evidence of normal school training. The Federal Government conducted an inquiry into the problem, and returned the question to the Territorial Assembly. No changes were made in the Board of Education or its powers.⁷

However, some of Mr. F. W. G. Haultain's comments at this time throw light on the desire of many to have a national system of government-controlled schools. With respect to teacher certification, he said:

Our duty is to see that none but properly qualified teachers are engaged in our schools, and that none but properly conducted schools receive public money, and those duties cannot be delegated to the representatives of any religious body or bodies.⁸

Mr. Haultain pointed out that the religious complexion of the

Mr. A. H. Smith, Moosomin, Mr. A. E. Forget, Regina, Rev. Father Gillies, Wapella. While one of the early school inspectors of this period was a clergyman, the tradition of appointing educators to inspect schools was soon established. Thus the clerical tradition remained only in the advisory council.

⁷For a full account of this controversy, see School Laws and Other Educational Matters in Assiniboia, Prince Edward Island, The North West Territories and Manitoba, Ottawa, Government Printing Bureau, 1894 (Copy of this document in the Legislative Library, Edmonton, Alberta).

⁸Ibid., p. 12.

school was a local and domestic matter, and that under the 1892 law religious instruction could be given at the discretion of the trustees of any district in the last half hour of the school day; he did not see that local religious instruction needed to have back of it the full apparatus of sectarian control at the central authority level:⁹

The general control of the school system is not concerned with the question (of dual control), nor should it be.

To deny this involves duplication of the whole machinery of education. It would involve two courses of study, two standards for teachers, two sets of inspectors, two sets of normal schools, two superintendents and government grants based on different standards.

This duplication is in the last analysis impossible, as it is unnecessary. Granted the right of Roman Catholic inspection and Roman Catholic management and control, the further necessity will arise for a Roman Catholic assembly to make ordinances for the government of Roman Catholic schools, and a Roman Catholic lieutenant governor to assent to such regulation, and a Roman Catholic governor general to allow the law to come into operation, on the advice of a Roman Catholic council, possessing the confidence of a Roman Catholic House of Commons.

The responsibility for the general management of our schools, for the educational policy of the Territories, and for the expenditure of the school vote is above and beyond any sectarian difference. Expenditure and control are inseparable, and so long as schools continue to receive government grants, they must be subject to government control.¹⁰

It will be noted that Mr. Haultain's last paragraph contains the principle essential to the arguments of those who were the advocates of a national system of schools.

Thus, in 1892 all schools receiving government grants came under the jurisdiction of the Council of Public Instruction. While separatism was provided locally either for Catholics or Protestants, all schools

⁹It is just at this point, of course, that the Catholic hierarchy most disagreed with Mr. Haultain.

¹⁰School Laws, etc., op. cit., p. 14.

were to be governed by the same regulations. Uniformity was established with respect to curriculum, courses of study, texts, examinations, and teacher training and examinations. Discretionary powers of local boards related to religious instruction were provided; the school might be opened with the Lord's Prayer, and some form of religious instruction could be provided in the last half hour of the school day.

To further carry out centralization of power in the hands of political authority, the 1892 Ordinance provided for a Superintendent of Education for the Territories.¹¹ He was to administer the regulations of the Council of Public Instruction.

Thus far in this chapter two trends have been indicated: a trend toward responsible government, and a trend toward government control of all schools. These two trends were united in 1901 when the administration of Territorial schools was placed directly under a cabinet minister and his Department of Education. A religious council still advised the minister responsible, but the Council of Public Instruction existed no more. In a period of thirteen years, then, (from 1888 to 1901) the North West Assembly had evolved a national system of public education, with provision for separatism only locally.

III. FEATURES OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Classification and Organization

The system of Standards used before 1892 was carried on through the period 1892-1901. Standards above Standard V were called high school

¹¹Ordinances, North West Territories, session of 1892, No. 22.

Standards.¹²

Curriculum

The School Ordinance of 1892 specified the general curriculum for the first five standards:

All schools shall be taught in the English language, and instruction may be given in the following branches, viz.: - Reading, writing, orthography, arithmetic, geography, grammar, history of Britain and Canada, French and English literature, in accordance with the programme of studies prescribed by the Council of Public Instruction. Due attention shall be given during the entire School course to manners and morals, and to laws of health, and to such physical exercises for the pupils as may be conducive to health and vigor of body as well as mind, and to the ventilation and temperature of school rooms.¹³

Shortly after it first convened, the Council of Public Instruction made Agriculture a compulsory subject on the public school curriculum.¹⁴

The 1895 curriculum for the public school¹⁵ lists the following subjects:

Reading and Literature
Orthoepy and Spelling
Composition
Grammar
History (Standards II to V only)
Geography
Nature Study and Agriculture
Arithmetic
Drawing
Music

¹²Ordinances, North West Territories, session of 1892.

¹³Ibid.

¹⁴Report of the Council of Public Instruction of the North West Territories of Canada, 1898, p. 18.

¹⁵That is, Standards I to V.

Hygiene-Physiology-Domestic Economy
Manners and Morals.¹⁶

The Public School Leaving Examination (Standard V) during 1895-1901 included examinations on all of the above subjects except Music, and Manners and Morals.

With respect to the high school grades the 1892 Ordinance had stated that the curriculum of the high school was to include the higher branches of a practical English and commercial education, the natural sciences, mathematics, and the Greek, Latin, French and German languages. Ordinance Number Two of 1896 deleted the above prescription and simply gave to the Council of Public Instruction the power to prescribe texts and programs of study.

Walker, in reference to the high school program of this time says:

. . . There is ample evidence that the courses taught in the high school standards from 1893 until 1902 corresponded almost entirely to the academic courses prescribed for the first, second, and third class teachers' certificates.¹⁷

In an analysis of the high curriculum of 1895, Walker listed the following subjects:

For Second and Third
Class Certificates

Grammar
Composition and Prose Literature
Reading Poetical Literature
Spelling and Writing
(judged on all papers)
Geography
History

For First Class
Certificates

Rhetoric and Composition
English Language
Poetical Literature
Spelling and Writing
(judged on all papers)
Geography
History

¹⁶Report of the Council, op. cit., pp. 31-43. This curriculum remained constant throughout the rest of the 1892-1901 period.

¹⁷Bernal Ernest Walker, "Public Secondary Education in Alberta" (unpublished Doctor of Philosophy thesis, Stanford University, 1955), p. 52.

Arithmetic and Mensuration	Algebra
Algebra	Geometry
Geometry	Trigonometry
Bookkeeping (Third Class only)	Chemistry
Agriculture	Botany
Botany	Physics
Physics. ¹⁸	

French and Latin were taught in some schools for those students who desired university preparation.

It is worth noting for both the public and high school Standards, that, in contrast to the Board of Education period, there was no syllabus of religious instruction for any sectarian group. This provision (or lack of it) was in keeping with a school system that was now under the non-sectarian control of the Council of Public Instruction.

For all Standards it is evident that the program in its main emphasis was an academic one, that is, classical and literary rather than technical; formal and theoretical rather than "practical." The concessions to vocational education lay in bookkeeping, and in agriculture.¹⁹ While Agriculture as a subject was to include some "practical" work in observation and in school gardens, it was made clear that a formal study of the principles underlying agriculture was the main object of the school:

The pupil who has done the work in Nature Study prescribed in our first three standards has acquired that elementary knowledge of the soil, the plant, and the animal upon which the study of agriculture rests. Our public school cannot teach the art of agriculture and does not undertake to do so. It does not teach a pupil the art of ploughing but it does teach him why he should plough and the reasons for deep or shallow tillage. It does not teach him the art of harrowing or cultivating but it does teach him how harrowing or cultivating

¹⁸Ibid., Appendix A, Tables 9 and 10. (Data originally from Report of the Council of Public Instruction, 1896, Appendix B and C.)

¹⁹Since the high school program was closely related to teacher education, it was in a very real sense a complete vocational program in itself.

may conserve soil-moisture--one of the most important problems western farmers have to deal with. It does not teach him the art of growing different grains but it does teach him how a grain of wheat or barley, or a pea germinates, gets needful air and warmth, obtains nourishment from the soil and how tillage is related to deep feeding or shallow feeding grains. It does attempt to teach pupils the principles upon which sound agricultural practice is based and it is accomplishing its task year by year with increasing success.²⁰

It was also said of Hygiene and Domestic Economy, "The practice of domestic economy cannot be taught now in our schools but its principles can."²¹

While Drawing and Music were offered as types of experience in the fine arts, their relatively insignificant place was made clear:

. . . Music coming as a recreation after severe mental work takes practically no time from the traditional studies, and, when chosen to suit the feelings and moods of the pupils, has a restful, helpful effect on them.²²

The traditional studies related to "severe mental work" were those previously listed: English, history, geography, mathematics, sciences (and in high schools) classical and modern languages. Of these, the lists of subjects previously given will show that English was pre-eminent; one-third of the curriculum and of the examinations (public school leaving, or teacher certification) was devoted to different aspects of the study of English.

Texts and References

Authorities in the 1892-1901 period continued the general policy of

²⁰Report of the Council of Public Instruction of the North West Territories of Canada, 1896, p. 18.

²¹Ibid., p. 20.

²²Ibid., p. 28.

authorizing a single text for most of the courses on the public school and high school programs.

Courses of Study

Courses of study in the 1892-1901 period were relatively small publications. For example, the whole program for Standards I - V, all subjects, is given in thirteen pages in 1895.²³ And the courses for the three high school standards in 1901 were given in six pages.²⁴

The course outlines for the public school standards usually indicated briefly the aims of the course, some general procedures to be followed in the subject, and the requirements of each standard.

For example, the course of study in Reading and Literature in 1895 is as follows:

Silent reading is used to obtain ideas and thoughts through printed or written words--to comprehend the subject matter as a whole and to grasp the significance of the parts, as well as to discover and appreciate beauties of thought and expression.

Oral reading is used to express these ideas and thoughts so as to be heard, understood and felt. It involves systematic training in the principle elements of expression--quality of voice, pitch, force, time, stress, inflection, emphasis, pause.

Supplementary reading is used to furnish additional reading matter; to provide reading collateral to the studies in nature, geography, history, literature, etc.; to cultivate a taste for good literature. Its use is optional.

Sight reading in silence is used to give power to glean thought quickly and intelligently from the printed page. It is followed by logical statement, in the pupil's own words, of what he has gleaned.

Selections of poetry and prose inculcating reverence, love of country, love of nature and admiration of moral courage are to be

²³Ibid., pp. 31-43.

²⁴Annual Report of the Department of Education of the North West Territories, 1901, pp. 83-88. Even at six pages, the courses represent an expansion over the 1885-92 period when the outlines were given in about half the space.

committed to memory and recited.

Standard I.

Authorized First Readers. Authorized Supplementary Readers.

Standard II.

Authorized Second Readers. Authorized Supplementary Readers.

Standard III.

Authorized Third Reader. Authorized Supplementary Readers.

Standard IV.

Authorized Fourth Reader. Authorized Supplementary Readers.

Standard V.

Authorized High School Reader. Authorized Supplementary Readers.²⁵

The course in Drawing in 1895 shows a preoccupation with geometric forms, and with a formal and almost mechanical reproduction of natural objects:

(Teacher's reference: The Prang Primary Course in Art Education - Parts I and II by Hicks and Locke.)

Drawing is to be taught as an added means of expression. Pupils are to draw in blank books after observing the type solids and objects.

Standard I.

Teach the following forms as wholes from type solids and objects:
Sphere and similar forms, natural and artificial, e.g., ball, marble, apple, tomato, cherry, lemon, etc.

Cylinder and similar forms, natural and artificial, e.g., pencil, bottle, spool, pint measure, cup, rope, ladder, mallet, etc.

Cube and similar forms, natural and artificial, e.g., box, chest, basket, inkstand, lump of sugar, etc.

Teach their parts - surfaces, faces, edges, and corners, and the relation of these parts: compare them.

Illustrative sketching in connection with Nature study.

²⁵Report of the Council of Public Instruction, etc., 1898, pp. 31-32.

Standards II and III.

The work of Standard I and the following:

The type solids bisected and studied as new wholes.

Hemisphere and similar forms, natural and artificial, e.g., half an apple, dish, bowl, cap, oil can, etc.

Half Cylinder and similar forms, natural and artificial, e.g., bandbox, coin, etc.

Half Cube, square prism, right angled triangular prism, and similar forms, natural and artificial, e.g., box, trunk, car, roof of a house, etc.

Teach their parts - surfaces, faces, edges and corners, and the relation of the parts. Compare them.

Teach geometric figures - triangle, square and rectangle from the solid. Draw objects based on these figures, e.g., pennant, envelope, door, cross, flag, etc.

Illustrative sketching in connection with Nature Study.

Standards IV and V.

The work of previous Standards and forms derived from the type solids by variation.

Spheroid, ellipsoid, ovoid, and similar forms, natural and artificial, e.g., lemon, cucumber, egg, hops, pear, strawberry, vase, watermelon, etc.

Cone, circular frustrum, and similar forms, natural and artificial, e.g., carrot, volcano, mountain peak, hour glass, wine glass, etc.

Pyramid, square frustrum and similar forms, natural and artificial, e.g., cupolas, pyramids of Egypt, basket, etc.

Draw, from the solids, the geometric figures, circle, ellipse and oval and learn the terms circumference, diameter, radius, arc, centre, focus, axis. Draw objects based on these figures, e.g., target, circular window, hand mirror, eye glasses, horse shoe, padlock, fan, spoon, etc.

Illustrative sketching in connection with other studies.²⁶

The following excerpt from the course outlines for Standard VI of the high school shows that in the high school the outlines were much briefer, in a number of cases consisting simply of a mention of the prescribed text for a particular course. It will be noted that in prose and poetical literature a limited number of selections have been prescribed for intensive study.

²⁶Ibid., pp. 40-41.

The excerpt follows:

3. English Grammar: - A general knowledge of the High School Grammar.

4. Composition and Prose Literature. - (a) The structure of sentences and paragraphs; expansion and contraction of prose passages; synonyms; correction of errors; critical study of the prescribed prose literature in connection with the study of the principles of composition; letter writing; punctuation. (b) An essay, from thirty to sixty lines in length, on one of a number of assigned subjects based upon the prescribed prose literature. This essay will be considered a test of the candidate's power to write English rather than a proof of his knowledge of the subject written upon. Legible writing and correct spelling, punctuation and paragraphing will be regarded as indispensable.

Text-book. - Welsh's "English Composition."

Prose Literature, 1899. - Goldsmith: The Vicar of Wakefield. ("Classics for Children" series, Ginn & Co., recommended.) The novel, like the poem, is to be studied as a criticism of life, and as an artistic whole.

5. Poetical Literature. - Intelligent comprehension of and familiarity with the prescribed selections; memorization of the finest passages; oral reading.

Prescribed Selections, 1899; Tennyson: Morte D'Arthur Elaine, Recollections of the Arabian Nights, To Virgil, Early Spring, Ulysses, "You Ask Me Why," "Of Old Sat Freedom," "Love Thou Thy Land," Freedom, Enone, The Lotos Eaters, Crossing the Bar, Lady of Shalott, St. Agnes' Eve, Sir Galahad, the six interlude songs in the Princess, and "Tears, Idle Tears." The following selections from Palgrave's Golden Treasury: Gray: Ode on Vicissitude. Ode on the Spring. Elegy written in a Country Churchyard. Ode on Eton College.

6. History. - The leading events of Canadian and British History.

Text-books. - Clement's History of Canada: Buckley and Robertson's High School History.

7. Geography. - The general geography--physical, commercial and mathematical--of the world; geography of Canada and the British Empire more particularly.

Text-books. - The High School Geography: Geography of the British Colonies by Dawson and Sutherland. McMillan & Co.

8. Arithmetic and Mensuration. - Pure arithmetic; commercial arithmetic.

Text-books. - Hamblin Smith's Arithmetic to the end of chap. XXVI; also chaps. XXXIII and XXXIV. For Mensuration,

consult Hill's Lessons in Geometry, chaps. VII to IX inclusive.²⁷

Much of the work in the upper standards in history, agriculture, geography, arithmetic, grammar, and composition was a review of work that had been "covered" in earlier standards. In this respect, the 1892-1901 period carried on the Board of Education tradition of thoroughly preparing students to become teachers of the public school standards.

Final Examinations

The examinations for Standards V through VIII show uniformly the demand for what have been termed "the essentials of subjects." The Literature examination in Standard V, 1901, required pupils to give:

1. The central thought of a short poem.
2. The grammatical relation of a phrase in the poem.
3. An interpretation of certain lines in the poem.
4. The meanings of certain words (e.g., "tarriest," "beneficient").
5. The meaning of a certain simile in the poem.
6. An account of a certain incident in one of the stories read during the year.
7. An interpretation of a certain poem read during the year.
8. The central theme of a certain sonnet and the meanings of some lines and words in it.
9. The titles of poems from which extracts are printed on the examination paper.
10. A detailed analysis of a certain story read during the year.²⁸

²⁷Ibid., pp. 44-45.

²⁸Annual Report of the Department of Education of the North West Territories, 1901, pp. 101-102.

A Grammar examination of the same year required pupils to state:

1. How sentences could be classified according to thought, giving examples.
2. The meaning of the term, "part of speech."
3. The proper classification of adverbs according to meaning.
4. The distinction between participles and gerunds, illustrating the use of each in sentences.
5. The meaning of "derivation" and "composition" as applied to word formation.
6. All of the interrogative pronouns.
7. Sentences containing a noun in apposition, and in the adverbial objective; a personal pronoun of the first person used as an indirect object, and the possessive plural of "child."
8. The classification of a given sentence. From the sentence the pupil was to pick out prepositional adverbial phrases, and three verbs of the Old Conjugation.
9. How six given words in the above sentence would be parsed.²⁹

The same general type of examination was used in the high school.

In 1900, students in Standard VIII (Second Class Certificate, Teachers' Non-Professional Examinations), wrote a paper in General History which asked them to write briefly upon the origin, religion, and caste system of the Hindoos; to account for the unprogressive character of all the Oriental nations; to contrast the Spartan and Athenian forms of government; to state the causes which, after Pericles' death, brought about a rapid decline in the greatness of Athens; to write a concise account of the civil war between Caesar and Pompey; to give some account of the Roman world under Augustus as regards its extent, its government and the social condition of the people; to narrate briefly but clearly the circumstances

²⁹Ibid., p. 102.

attending the final dismemberment of the Roman Empire.³⁰

In all of the examinations of this period it is apparent that students were expected, in the main, to repeat or apply certain facts and general principles that they had learned during the year. There is relatively little interpretation of new selections in literature; most of the examination questions are related to a limited number of prescribed selections. The essays given are based on historical or literary selections studied during the year.³¹ Nature study and agriculture, and hygiene and temperance required the restatement of factual material. So did general, Canadian and British history. Geography papers asked such questions as "Name the chief exports and imports of Peru, India, Quebec, France, British Columbia, South Africa," or "Name the countries bordering on the Mediterranean Sea. State the capital and the form of government of each."³² Students were expected, though, to apply acquired principles to new examples in parts of the papers in rhetoric, spelling, principles of reading, grammar, and mathematics. By 1901, as well, the drawing examinations had become less rigid and formal, the examiners in some cases

³⁰Report of the Council of Public Instruction, etc., 1900, p. 106.

³¹With the addition of certain didactic topics, e.g., Discuss "That virtue which requires to be ever guarded is scarce worth the sentinel." Or, discuss "That single effort by which we stop short in the downhill path to perdition is itself a greater exertion of virtue than a hundred acts of justice" (from the 1900 Essay examination for Standard VI, p. 86 of the Report of the Council of Public Instruction.)

³²Annual Report of the Department of Education of the North West Territories, 1901, p. 104. Inspectors earlier than 1901 had warned, though, against the kind of teaching in which attention was given to products rather than processes, or in which there was memorizing of unorganized knowledge. Thus geography teaching was to be much broader than mere classification and memorization.

asking pupils to sketch classroom or outdoor scenes.

Promotion Policy

In the lower standards pupils were promoted at the teachers' discretion. These promotions were usually reviewed by the inspectors upon the occasion of their regular visits.

From 1892-96 Standards III and IV were subject to external examination because the school grant system was closely related to pupil placement. However, after 1896, the Council of Public Instruction abolished these examinations, retaining only those in the standards from Standard V up. The Standard V examinations set the standard for entrance to high school.

Teaching Procedures

In this period the dependence upon a single text in so many subjects was connected with teaching procedures and the type of examinations set.

In 1898, Dr. D. J. Goggin, Superintendent of Education, outlined the procedure followed by an inspector upon his visit to a school room.

Dr. Goggin said in part:

. . .He observes the teacher's conduct of a recitation, definiteness of aim, selection of facts, clearness of presentation, character of drill, and notes the habits of work of the pupils in seats during this period.³³

Dr. Goggin also indicated that the teacher had for many years been in a position of authority:

³³Ibid., p. 17.

There is a gradual improvement in the character of government exercised in our school. The teacher is less of a "boss" and more of a sympathetic helper in the school room. . . .³⁴

The meaning of both quotations above is quite clear. The teacher was in possession of a body of material which it was his duty to convey in some orderly and systematic way to his pupils. The pupils, in turn, were expected to master a certain minimum body of knowledge, and to give evidence of this mastery through some system of examinations. As Dr. Goggin had recorded earlier of Council examinations in Standards II and IV:

. . . These examinations raised the standard of scholarship, directed the teaching into sounder lines, caused the essentials of subjects to be learned more thoroughly. . . , and spurred the indolent and indifferent to more vigorous and systematic endeavor. . .³⁵

IV. AIMS FOR THE SCHOOL

Intellectual Development

School authorities in 1892-1901 felt that the school should make a generous contribution to the intellectual development of students. Aspects of the development are these:

1. The three R's.
2. A body of knowledge.
3. A grasp of general principles.³⁶

³⁴Report of the Council of Public Instruction, etc., 1900, p. 32.

³⁵Report of the Council of Public Instruction, etc., 1896, p. 17. In the 1898 Report, p. 17, it is recorded that the Inspector upon his visit "examines the children in several subjects to discover what knowledge they possess, what power to master new work they have acquired. . . ."

³⁶The course outline for arithmetic in 1898 said that principles and rules should be arrived at inductively. "Accuracy and rapidity in the simple fundamental processes are important." (Report of Council of Public Instruction, etc., 1898, p. 38.)

4. Development of reasoning power.
5. Development of powers of observation.
6. Mental discipline.

This chapter's exposition of material concerning texts, teaching methods, courses of study, and examinations will serve to show educators' concern with the first three of the above aspects of intellectual development. In addition, comments in Annual Reports show consideration for the latter three aspects. As one writer of this period said, ". . . knowledge, valuable as it is in itself, is subordinate to discipline and culture" ³⁷ Others held that the student was to gain knowledge by methods that would give his mind power, balance, skill and the spirit of inquiry. ³⁸ Much of the value of arithmetic lay in the training of the logical faculty. ³⁹ In grammar, through the logical forms of subject, predicate and modifier, there is revealed the essential nature of thought, and hence the formal study of grammar is valuable as a training in thinking. Parsing, for instance, becomes a discipline in classification. ⁴⁰ History (besides teaching moral notions, patriotism and civic duty) affords us a first-rate discipline in reasoning. ⁴¹ Nature study trains children in habits of correct observation, cautious interpretation and accurate

³⁷Report of the Council of Public Instruction etc., 1896, p. 25.

³⁸Report of the Council of Public Instruction, etc., 1900, p. 21.

³⁹Report of the Council of Public Instruction, etc., 1896, p. 27.

⁴⁰Ibid., p. 22.

⁴¹Ibid., p. 22. For example, in the weighing of evidence.

statement.⁴² Science also teaches accurate observation. In the intensive study of prose and poetry, the student must analyze selections by sections and then line by line. If pupils are led to read a great poem or play deliberately, minutely, lingeringly and reflectively, "one can hardly speak too highly of the effect of this intensive reading upon the sum of a pupil's ideas, the logical character of his thought, and the enrichment of his vocabulary."⁴³ In higher mathematics, the formal solution of applied problems is generally recognized as logic work as well as number work.⁴⁴ And not only do specific subjects train the pupil's mind, but classrooms should contain enough students to create those conditions of inspiration and competition that call forth all the powers of the child.⁴⁵

Physical Health

A second aim for the school was to teach the child something about the care of his body. The 1898 outline of the course for Hygiene Physiology is as follows:

(Teacher's reference: Ontario Manual of Hygiene or Ontario Public School Physiology and Temperance.)

For convenience in teaching these subjects the ungraded school may be divided into two sections, the first comprising the pupils in Standards I and II and the second those in Standards III, IV and V. Practical effect should be given to the instruction in this subject by attention to the physical condition and habits of the children, the ventilation, lighting, heating and cleaning of the school room, and the supervision by the teacher of the sports and gymnastic exercises of the pupils.

⁴²Ibid., p. 24.

⁴³Annual Report of the Department of Education of the North West Territories, 1901, p. 34.

⁴⁴Ibid., p. 40.

⁴⁵Ibid., p. 31.

Topics: Lessons on cleanliness, proper clothing, pure air, good water, exercise, rest, avoidance of draughts, wholesome food, temperate habits, bathing, accidents, poison, disinfectants, digestion, circulation, respiration, care of the eye and ear.⁴⁶

Aesthetic Development

A third task of the school lay in developing the student's aesthetic nature. "The aesthetic instinct, like the intellectual and the moral, is an original endowment, and entitled to culture."⁴⁷ The school, in its external aspect, can be made beautiful with fences and trees; Madeira, Hop and Wild Cucumber vines can be trained about the windows, rose bushes planted in the corners, and a bed of plants and flowers created. "The school ought to be and can be a potent influence in the education of people as to the value of the beautiful in human life."⁴⁸ The school room itself ought to be well arranged, with floors and windows clean, and walls decorated with pictures. Corners of blackboards can show gems of literature encompassed by scrolls or sprays, beauty in form and color surrounding beautiful thoughts. Under such conditions the child is self-restrained, and respects himself because his surroundings are respectable; the child naturally puts himself in harmony with his environment. Day by day beautiful, comfortable and clean surroundings will have their ethical influence on the child, until he comes in time to abhor anything that is not beautiful, well-ordered and clean:

There is scarcely a sounder principle in pedagogy than that care

⁴⁶Report of the Council of Public Instruction, etc., 1896, p. 42.

⁴⁷Ibid., p. 15.

⁴⁸Ibid., p. 14.

begets care; order, order; cleanliness, cleanliness; and beauty, beauty. Things conspicuously good command the respect of children, invite their imitation, and in ways, real though obscure, sink into their souls and mould their being. The power of good example in men and women no one disputes, but there is power akin to it in things, provided they embody the better thoughts of men and women--a power of which more should be made in school management than at present.⁴⁹

Art, music and literature have a specific role to play in the development of the child's aesthetic nature. "Under the teacher's guidance a picture like a poem reveals its content, and the pupil perceives that it has an inner moral beauty as well as an outer sensual beauty, and feels and enjoys the spiritual suggestion in it."⁵⁰ Drawing "arouses and makes active the creative ability of the child and it leads him to see and appreciate the beauty in what surrounds him and strengthens his desires therefore. . . ."⁵¹ Music affords "a culture for the soul as well as a training for the voice."⁵² In literature "a short stanza selected for its ethical, patriotic, aesthetic or other value is memorized and care is taken to have it uttered intelligently, distinctly and rhythmically. In this way the formation of a taste for good literature is begun."⁵³

Religious Knowledge and Development

Although no texts were authorized from a sectarian standpoint, school law provided for religious instruction at the option of local trustees, and the advisory body to the Council of Public Instruction was

⁴⁹Report of the Council of Public Instruction, etc., 1898, p. 25.

⁵⁰Report of the Council of Public Instruction, etc., 1896, p. 15.

⁵¹Ibid., p. 27.

⁵²Ibid., p. 28.

⁵³Ibid., p. 20.

composed of Christians. The evidence of school publications is that idealism related to the concept of a God was basic to a philosophy of life; this view is in harmony with Christian belief. However, since the entire school system was non-sectarian, it could not be said that the Council prescribed instruction in religion for all pupils.

Vocational Preparation

The slight concession made to vocational instruction in 1885-92 was carried on in 1892-1901 through the teaching of bookkeeping and agriculture. The Council continued to use high school examinations and standards for entry to different classes of teacher training and teachers' certificates.

Morality and Good Character

A sixth aim of the school, and one that is given much prominence in official publications of the 1892-1901 period, was that of moral and ethical training, and of training in good manners. The series of quotations that follow show to what extent officials of this period appeared to be concerned about these aspects of the school's work. (In order to give the full "flavor" of the publications, some of the quotations will be given at length). There is, first of all a comment on the general program in the Territories:

. . .The North West Territories stand foremost among the colonies which insist on direct ethical teaching as a part of the program.⁵⁴

⁵⁴Annual Report of the Department of Education of the North West Territories, 1901, p. 48.

History has a part to play in such ethical teaching:

Training of the moral judgment and preparation for intelligent citizenship are important aims in teaching history. . . .(With respect to the lives of distinguished men described there should be) discussion of the chief excellences and defects in their characters to teach moral discrimination, and ultimately to derive principles of conduct.⁵⁵

Literature has a part, too:

. . .Character studies are introduced and the pupils are led gradually to look on literature as interpreting life, as an "effective agency for cherishing within us the ideal."⁵⁶

Music is important:

Music affords a culture for the soul as well as a training for the voice and only such songs should be learned as express noble and refining sentiments, for the taste can be educated downwards as well as upwards. . . .⁵⁷

Temperance teaching helps to develop a person's conscience:

Instruction in Temperance is compulsory in all schools. . . . (The best) teachers dwell upon the virtues of self-reverence and self-control and picture the body with its appetites as under the rule of a trained will guided by an enlightened conscience. . . . (These teachers) direct the mind upward and base their efforts on nobler incentives. . . .Love of the good is a higher motive to action than fear of the bad. . . .⁵⁸

Even handwriting is related to good manners and morality:

. . .A fair, free hand is bound to produce a favorable impression, and whether there be any truth in the connection between character and writing or not, there can be no doubt that employers of apprentices think so. . .it should be remembered that there is a moral view, and that the man who. . .writes in such a way as to cause the greatest possible trouble to the person who is expected to decipher it, manifests an undesirable amount of inconsiderate disregard for the comfort and convenience of others.⁵⁹

⁵⁵Report of the Council of Public Instruction, etc., 1898, p. 34.

⁵⁶Report of the Council of Public Instruction, etc., 1896, p. 20.

⁵⁷Ibid., p. 28. ⁵⁸Ibid.

⁵⁹Annual Report of the Department of Education of the North West Territories, 1901, p. 36.

Dr. Goggin, in an 1896 publication, is at some pains to show the relationship of manners to morals:

. . .It is recognized that graceful behavior should have as its basis, good moral character since "manners are not idle but are the fruit of loyal nature and of noble mind."

In order that a pupil may do his duty intelligently he must know what his duty is, see the reasonableness of it and feel its obligatoriness. He has learned something of number and language before he enters school but once there he is instructed in the subject matter of arithmetic and grammar and required to put it to use as a test of effective instruction. The child entering school knows something of duty but of the subject matter of morality--man's relation to man--he knows little. He needs the knowledge. It can be acquired in substantially the same manner as the knowledge of grammar and can be turned to use daily until correct thinking passing over into right action is crystallized into right habit.⁶⁰

The actual course outline for Manners and Morals occupies two paragraphs in the course of studies in effect from 1895-1901:

It is the duty of the teacher to see that the pupil practices those external forms of conduct which express a true sense of the proprieties of life and that politeness which denotes a genuine respect for the wants and wishes of others. It is his duty to turn the attention of the pupils to the moral quality of their acts and to lead them into a clear understanding and constant practice of every virtue. His own influence and example; the narration of suitable tales to awaken right feeling; the memorizing of gems embodying noble sentiments, and maxims and proverbs containing rules of duty; direct instruction, etc., are means to be employed.

Topics: Cleanliness and neatness, politeness, gentleness, kindness to others, kindness to animals, love, truthfulness, fidelity in duty, obedience, nobility, respect and reverence, gratitude and thankfulness, forgiveness, confession, honesty, honour, courage, humility, self-respect, self-control, prudence, good name, good manners, temperance, health, evil habits, bad language, evil speaking, industry, economy.⁶¹

Social Behavior

In the publications of this period there is some distinction

⁶⁰Report of the Council of Public Instruction, etc., 1896, p. 25.

⁶¹Report of the Council of Public Instruction, etc., 1898, p. 42.

between moral behavior and social behavior, but the very term "Manners and Morals" indicate the close relationship observed between the two aspects of human development. For example, the extended quotation given immediately above notes not only moral acts, but also "that politeness which denotes a genuine respect for the wants and wishes of others."

Preparation for Home and Family Life

As in 1885-92 there is little attention paid to preparation for home and family life. It is apparently assumed that if the school helps to develop good character and citizenship, it is then helping the home as best it can.

Development of Citizenship

Another task of the school is to prepare the child to be a good, intelligent, and patriotic citizen. Since the relations of men to the state involve citizenship "one use of history. . . is to teach patriotism and civic duty."⁶² The job of the public school (Standards I - V) is to acquaint pupils with the history of Canada; in this acquaintance "our best patriotic songs and poems are sung and recited."⁶³

For years, asserted Dr. Goggin in 1898, the educational authorities in the Territories have been building up a sound patriotic spirit. In history and in literature the younger children study the lives of great men and are helped to draw moral and civic lessons from their acts and motives. Obedience to duty, and respect for law and authority, as they

⁶²Report of the Council of Public Instruction, etc., 1896, p. 22.

⁶³Ibid., p. 23.

are developed in these lessons, receive praise, and their practice is required in the class room. The boy who loves his mother and is obedient to her and to his teacher is laying a good foundation for love of country and obedience to its laws.

Later, in dealing with great national events, pupils are helped to understand, so far as they are able, the rights and duties of the actors, the motives that prompted action, and the ethical value of these. They are led to see that accomplishment is not the true test of the worth of an act done either by the state or the individual. Respect for the rights of others as well as regard for our own, in small matters as in great, is taught in these lessons and practised in the schools. The boy who learns in the home and the school to have an intelligent respect for the rights of his fellows, and to do his duty in the scorn of consequences is laying a sound foundation for civic usefulness.

Later still the chief duties that a citizen owes to his municipality and country are presented and pupils are led to recognize that each man has public as well as personal and family obligations and that it is the duty of each man to help in shaping public affairs. The greatness of their country, its relation to other countries, the rights and duties arising therefrom and the similarity of these to those affecting individuals are matters of study and discussion.

From the first, pupils memorise poems and sing songs that intensify the feelings aroused by these studies. Intelligent thought stimulated by emotion is to pass over into definite purpose and out into rational action.

Said Dr. Goggin:

There is a patriotism that prompts men to go to war and if need be to die for their country. There is a patriotism that arouses the civic spirit and prompts men to live for their country, performing civic duties at home on election day and every other day. This patriotism, beginning in love and obedience and respect for authority in the home, and continuing in the school, can be depended on in the community and the state. It is not a patriotism that willingly lends itself to "flag" days and parades and "orations" but it can be relied upon at the ballot box and in the hour of the nation's peril when deeds rather than words are wanted.⁶⁴

At this particular period in Canadian history it was important to educational authorities that national traditions and a citizen's duty to his country should be emphasized. In the North West Territories one of the pressing educational problems was the settlement of so many foreign groups in the block or colony system. There were colonies of Swedes, Finns, Bohemians, Hungarians, Jews, Austrians, Germans, Russians, Icelanders, Mennonites, Galicians and Doukhobors. This rapid increase of a "foreign" population was seen as a challenge and an invitation to Canadian institutions. To assimilate these different races required "patience, tact, and tolerant but firm legislation."⁶⁵ Only through the schools getting an early hold of the children of these settlers could it be hoped to train the children according to the Canadian social system, and to have them understand and appreciate the institutions of the new country in which they were settled.

Thus far, nine aims of the school have been outlined. All of these are seen by the school as part of its general task of preparing the pupil for life, and of interpreting and illuminating the life the pupil saw

⁶⁴Report of the Council of Public Instruction, etc., 1898, pp. 27-28.

⁶⁵Ibid., p. 11.

around him. In the Programme of Studies, provision was made for the teaching of those subjects a knowledge of which would be helpful in the transaction of business, the duties of citizenship, the care of the body and the formation of moral character. "This knowledge is needed by all and may be so presented as to be objectionable to none."⁶⁶ In the high school the training undergone, the habits formed, the knowledge of literature, history, mathematics and science acquired in "obtaining a satisfactory preparation for life"⁶⁷ constitute a good foundation on which to base higher studies of colleges and professional schools.

The reference to "habits formed" immediately above is amplified in these remarks:

. . .Beginning work punctually, doing a given amount of work within a stated period, working silently so as not to hinder his neighbor, cooperating with associates in common tasks or amusements, and obeying promptly the law of the school, make up a daily discipline the future value of which, in industrial and civic life, can scarcely be over estimated.⁶⁸

The school then, is a place in which a child not only becomes a scholar, but a place in which "he grows in social capacity and service till he passes into the larger world outside the school."⁶⁹ While material affairs engross the attention of the pioneer, his children have to be prepared to "make a life as well as earn a living."⁷⁰

⁶⁶Report of the Council of Public Instruction, etc., 1896, p. 11.

⁶⁷Report of the Council of Public Instruction, etc., 1900, p. 26.

⁶⁸Report of the Council of Public Instruction, etc., 1896, p. 29.

⁶⁹Report of the Council of Public Instruction, etc., 1900, p. 22.

⁷⁰Report of the Council of Public Instruction, etc., 1896, p. 15.

The school must help to produce a nation's truest wealth--educated men with refined tastes, sound moral perception, a keen sense of civic responsibility and duty, and an adequate conception of the purposes of life.⁷¹

A general statement by Dr. Goggin in 1900 gives a good summary of the various aims of the school outlined in some detail in the pages above. This statement is quoted at length because its thought is central to this part of Chapter IV:

Courses of study and methods of teaching are shaped by certain considerations. The pupil must be prepared as a member of society to live a worthy life and earn a respectable living. The family, society, the state, the church, and the vocation and the school must co-operate in preparing him for his twofold life work.

He must acquire at least an elementary knowledge of the civilisation into which he is born and in which he must live worthily or unworthily. The child is a unit in the family, in society and in state, and the school as the instrument of these should as far as possible give him instruction and practice in his duties to each and so prepare him for that social service which is essential to the welfare of the community and the individual. In history and literature he reads of the real and ideal acts of men and of nations and so may receive instruction in duty, guidance in action and inspiration for effort, and thus his political duties and rights become clearer. He is lead to form judgments on the moral qualities of deeds performed by those he reads about and this has a reflex effect upon his own acts. His training in manners and morals makes him acquainted with those habits and customs which rest upon respect for rights and feelings of others and are the measure of good behaviour in society. The lessons in hygiene make clear to him the necessity for obedience to the laws of health and for control of appetites. Music and drawing have their refining influence upon him.

To earn a living he must acquire some knowledge of the physical world and some command over its resources. He is to be a unit in industrial and commercial life, and the school as an educational instrument should give him the rudiments at least of that knowledge and manual skill on which rest industrial arts and commercial enterprises. In geography he learns the essential surface features of the earth and the relation thereto of man's modes of living--how man's industries, trade and commerce are affected by geographical

⁷¹Report of the Council of Public Instruction, etc., 1898, p. 11.

controls. In nature study and agriculture he learns through observation and experiment something of plant life, animal life and soils and relates this knowledge to the work of the farm and the ranch. He learns writing, spelling, grammar and composition as helpful instruments in the arts of expression; and his mathematics as a necessary tool for weighing, measuring, evaluating the facts revealed in his study of man and nature.

He should gain all this knowledge by methods that will give to his mind power, balance, skill and the spirit of enquiry. And he should be led to see clearly that while he must earn a living as well as live a worthy life, the latter is the higher aim and the more difficult task, and that these two are not incompatible.⁷²

V. EMPHASIS AMONG AIMS

The following chart indicates the author's opinion of the relative weights placed upon different aims for the school. Those aims receiving most emphasis are at the left, the others at the right.

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|---|
| 1. Intellectual Development | |
| The Three R's | |
| A Body of Knowledge | |
| A Grasp of General Principles | |
| Development of Reasoning Power | |
| Development of Powers of Observation | |
| Mental Discipline | |
| 2. Physical Health | |
| 3. Aesthetic Development | |
| | 4. Religious Knowledge and Development |
| | 5. Vocational Preparation |
| 6. Morality and Good Character | |
| 7. Social Behavior | |
| | 8. Preparation for Home and Family Life |
| 9. Development of Citizenship | |

⁷²Report of the Council of Public Instruction, etc., 1900, p. 21.

VI. WHO SHOULD BE EDUCATED?

The school system continued to provide for the academic capacities of "normal" children. In 1899 the Council made provision for certain handicapped children (deaf mutes) to be given elementary schooling at the Manitoba Deaf and Dumb Institution. In 1901 there were twelve children from the Territories at the Winnipeg school. It is interesting to note that the Institution gave not only general education, but also specific training in printing, dressmaking and carpentry.

VII. THE NATURE OF SOCIETY

The society of 1892-1901 was primarily a rural and pioneer society. Agriculture, for instance, had been made a compulsory subject for all public school children in 1892; its introduction was related to a hope that it would "increase the number of intelligent persons who will devote themselves to those industries on which the success of the great North West depends."⁷³ Other statements indicate that the country is still young, that material affairs engross the attention of the pioneer. And the conditions of life in this new country help to account for the early withdrawal from school of so many children.⁷⁴

There were two kinds of change taking place in society--one, the country was being settled by immigrants; two, the origins of the immigrants were such that the composition of the Territories by race and religion was being altered from French, Indian and Catholic, to Anglo-

⁷³Report of the Council of Public Instruction, etc., 1896, p. 25.

⁷⁴Ibid., p. 13. In 1896, 43% of the pupils were in Standard I, 21% in II, 24% in III, 7% in IV, 3% in V, and only 2% in high school (VI, VII, VIII).

Saxon, European and Protestant.

There is, however, no evidence that educators considered society to be changing basically in political, religious, social or economic thought. In political ideas, for instance, the school was working to bring pupils of all backgrounds into an acceptance of traditional British parliamentary institutions. And, while there might be struggles over the control of the school system--sectarian or non-sectarian--no one apparently doubted the basis upon which religion rested. In general, then, the society of the time appeared to be viewed as stable.

VIII. THE FORM OF THE SCHOOL

From some of the comments and quotations given above, it is apparent that the school was seen as a place in which a child was prepared in various ways for life. "The school is a social organization in which pupils live as well as work. . . .It is a place characteristically a home rather than a shop."⁷⁵ Again, the school is an "educational instrument."⁷⁶ The school, then, is an institution which, while it is a necessary part of society, does not attempt to be a microcosm of that society. It has its own form, culture and specific functions.

IX. THE SCHOOL AND SOCIAL CHANGE

Since society was stable, there was no task for the school in the

⁷⁵Report of the Council of Public Instruction, etc., 1900, p. 22.

⁷⁶Ibid., p. 21.

changing of the social order.⁷⁷ Official statements of the period, rather, point out in various ways how the school is to prepare the child to live a worthy life and earn a respectable living. While the society of the time may not be acceptable to all persons in all of its aspects, it is generally acceptable.

X. EDUCATIONAL IDEAS: A LABEL

No "label" for the school system is given by any writer of this period. While the terms "traditional" or "formal" were used very cautiously and tentatively by this writer in Chapter II to speak of 1885-92 schools, it would be inappropriate to continue using the terms. Each period of educational history brings with it certain changes; to use one term for many periods is to obscure change.

XI. BASIC PHILOSOPHY: A LABEL

The role of the school as related in the above section on "The Aims for Education" was linked to a basic philosophical point of view. Concerning the teaching of literature, it was noted in 1896 that teachers of the time were coming to feel the vitalizing, spiritualizing influence of the best literature, to believe that it "awakens within us the diviner mind and rouses us to a consciousness of what is best in others and ourselves."⁷⁸ The mention of the "diviner mind" is amplified in a comment of the same year concerning Agriculture. This subject not only had a

⁷⁷ Except insofar perhaps as the individual, acting ethically, might attempt to reform certain social evils.

⁷⁸ Report of the Council of Public Instruction, etc., 1896, p. 21.

material, technical, scientific aspect, but it had a higher value in enabling the pupil to see a God behind all worldly things:

To go abroad rejoicing in the joy
Of beautiful and well-created things;
To love the voice of waters and the sheen
Of silver fountains leaping to the sea;
To thrill with the rich melody of birds
Living their life of music; to be glad
In the gay sunshine, reverent in the storm;
To see beauty in the stirring leaf,
And find calm thoughts beneath the whispering tree;
To see, and hear, and breathe the evidence
Of God's deep wisdom in the natural world!⁷⁹

In 1898 Dr. Goggin wrote in respect to Nature Study that there is a knowledge of Nature which contributes to the earning of a living; this is a practical view. Or, Nature Study may be taught in such a way as to give a training in observation and scientific method; this is a disciplinary view. Thirdly, there is a knowledge of Nature which leads the pupil to see the beautiful in it; this is the aesthetic view. But most important of all is the spiritual view, the view that gives the pupil an insight into all life with its unity, and leads him "to look up reverently to the Author of all life--through Nature up to Nature's God--the thought that makes life worth living."⁸⁰

The above conception of a God as creator and mover of all life has usually been thought of as an Idealistic view;⁸¹ it is essential to remember that this kind of Idealism found in 1892-1901 was not linked with the word "Christian" at all, though it is certainly compatible

⁷⁹Ibid., p. 25.

⁸⁰Report of the Council of Public Instruction, etc., 1898, p. 18.

⁸¹See Appendix A for a statement concerning Idealism.

with Christianity. With as much emphasis as this period apparently had upon ethics and morals, it would not be amiss to term the philosophy of this period "Ethical Idealism."

XII. CHANGE AND THE REASONS FOR CHANGE

Various changes in the educational system have been observed in this chapter. First, secular forces gained the ascendancy over sectarian religious forces, and effective control of the school system of the Territories passed from two religious bodies to a cabinet responsible to an elected assembly. A "national" system of schools also logically presupposes a basic philosophy which is acceptable to most of the people served by the schools; this basic philosophy in 1892-1901 changed to a form of idealism. Such a philosophy would find acceptance with many and, while not wholly acceptable to Christians, would not likely offend them too greatly.

The change to a national system with provision locally for separatism (Protestant and Roman Catholic) meant that Protestants and Roman Catholics lost indefinitely the privileges once enjoyed: authorization of texts, the setting of examinations, the appointment of inspectors of a certain faith.

One addition in aims for the school, one omission of an aim, and several changes in emphases among aims should be noted. Mental discipline became stressed as a new aspect of work in various subjects. Mental health is omitted in 1892-1901. A grasp of general principles and the development of reasoning power are aspects of intellectual development that are more strongly stressed in 1892-1901 than in 1885-92. Aesthetic

development receives much more attention in 1892-1901 than before.

It is fair to observe that documents of 1892-1901 contain many pages of material not obtainable in the previous period. As well, Dr. D. J. Goggin had more time and more opportunity to be explicit about educational matters than had the old Board of Education. Thus the above paragraph about changes in aims must be interpreted with caution, for the documents of 1892-1901 may simply be saying what the authorities of 1885-92 believed to be true, too.

XIII. SUMMARY

In this period education came under the control of the Council of Public Instruction, a government body empowered to administer a national non-sectarian system of schools.

Various features of the school system remained much as they had been in 1885-92. The curriculum, for example, was relatively limited, fixed and academic. The aims of the school, however, were broad:

1. Intellectual Development
2. Physical Health
3. Aesthetic Development
4. Religious Knowledge and Development
5. Vocational Preparation
6. Morality and Good Character
7. Social Behavior
8. Preparation for Home and Family Life
9. Development of Citizenship

The school was a social organization in which a pupil was to undergo

development in many respects. He thus became a better person and in due course a better adult, able "to make a living and live a worthy life." Basic to this point of view about the school was the philosophy known as Idealism.

CHAPTER V

THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION OF THE NORTH WEST TERRITORIES 1901-1905

In this chapter there will be related the nature of educational developments just before the provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan were formed out of part of the North West Territories.

I. POLITICAL DEVELOPMENTS AND THE CENTRAL EDUCATIONAL AUTHORITY

In 1901 effect was given to possibilities inherent in legislation of 1897 (the date of formal recognition of responsible government in the Territories); the Council of Public Instruction ceased to exist and the control of all matters pertaining to schools and school districts was handed over to a Department of Education. In its organization the Department resembled the other departments of the Territorial government. It was constituted a separate and distinct branch of the public service and presided over by one of the members of the Executive Council entitled the Commissioner of Education.¹ The Commissioner had a Deputy who had under him the Superintendent of Education and a Departmental staff. Upon Dr. Goggin's resignation in 1902, no new Superintendent was appointed. The staff then came directly under the Deputy.

An Educational Council of five members, constituted along sectarian

¹Annual Report of the Department of Education of the North West Territories, 1901, p. 21.

lines (i.e., Catholic and non-Catholic), was to advise the Commissioner. The Council first met for two days in July of 1902 and considered various matters submitted to it by the Department for discussion and report.²

II. FEATURES OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

With the exception of a revision of the high school curriculum in 1902 and some revision of Standard V in 1903, the period of 1901-05 carries on the general ideas embodied in classification, organization, curriculum, courses of study, texts, methods, examinations and promotion policies of 1892-1901.

The revision of the high school curriculum brought a widening of the curriculum and the introduction of the elective principle. The amount of English to be read was increased considerably. In Standard VII the amount of History to be read was increased, Geography lessened and an elementary course in Biology and Chemistry introduced. In Standard VIII an outline of English Industrial History was introduced. The courses in Latin, French and German were harmonized with those of the University of Manitoba.³

The elective principle meant that not all pupils were required to take a fixed program. The program for Standard VII, for instance, may be summarized as follows:

²Annual Report, etc., 1902, p. 9. For example, the Council discussed revision of regulations concerning teachers' certificates, and the revision of the high school course of studies.

³Ibid., p. 17.

- | | |
|-------------------------|----------------|
| 1. Reading | 8. Geometry |
| 2. Composition | 9. Animal life |
| 3. Literature | 10. Chemistry |
| 4. Grammar and Rhetoric | 11. Drawing |
| 5. History | 12. Latin |
| 6. Geography | 13. French |
| 7. Algebra | 14. German |

All students: 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,11.

Optional subjects: Chemistry, Latin, French, German.

Examination subjects for students intending to become teachers or to enter a profession: 2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10.

Electives: Students might offer Latin instead of Algebra; either French or German instead of either English grammar and rhetoric, or chemistry; or French and German instead of English grammar and rhetoric and chemistry.⁴

Although, as is obvious, the program was still an academic one, the above revision made an attempt to provide for individual differences in high school students. This attempt might be limited in its application by the smallness of Territorial high schools and by the tendency of the high school to act as a preparatory institution for Normal schools and universities, but it was a first step.⁵

Although there was some change in course prescriptions from the earlier periods, the course outlines of 1902 are of the same general

⁴Ibid., pp. 86-89.

⁵Though for the first time in 1902 the high school program was announced as a high school program and not as a teachers' non-professional program.

nature as their predecessors. In many cases, the same texts were prescribed again in the "revised" courses. The following texts, for instance, were used in both periods:

Clements' History of the Dominion of Canada
 Swinton's Outline of World's History
 Bagehot's The English Constitution
 Dawson and Sutherland's Geography of the British Colonies
 The New Canadian Geography (North West Territories Edition)
 Tarr's Elementary Physical Geography
 Hamblin Smith's Arithmetic
 C. Smith's Elementary Algebra
 Todhunter and Loney's Geometry
 Murray's Plane Trigonometry and Tables
 Seath's High School Grammar (revised edition)
 Genung's Practical Elements of Rhetoric
 Spotton's High School Botany
 Gage's Introduction to Physical Science
 Henderson and Fletcher's First Latin Book
 High School Grammar (French)
 High School Grammar (German)⁶

When it is remembered that curriculum construction in this period was largely a matter of selecting and prescribing a series of texts, it will be seen that the 1902 program revision involved no general or radical changes apart from the elective principle mentioned above.

⁶Annual Reports, etc., 1901, p. 94, and 1902, p. 93.

For Standards I to IV the same curriculum and courses of study were used in 1901-05 as before 1901. There is notice in a 1903 publication of a revision of the course of studies for the first four standards,⁷ such revision to be submitted to the July, 1904, meeting of the Educational Council, but since the Provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan were formed shortly after, and no annual Territorial report was written for 1904, there is no further evidence of the completion of the revision. However, some changes were made in 1903 in Standard V in texts and in course outlines, though the revised outlines often incorporated the exact wording of the old. The principle of pupil choice, noted earlier for the high school, was applied in 1903 to Standard V. Subjects were given as "obligatory" and "optional"; pupils were required to write certain of each if they desired entrance to high school. The curriculum was as follows:

Obligatory Subjects:

Examination Subject?

- | | |
|---------------------------------|--------|
| 1. Reading | 1. No |
| 2. Literature | 2. Yes |
| 3. Composition | 3. Yes |
| 4. Grammar | 4. Yes |
| 5. Orthoepey and spelling | 5. Yes |
| 6. Arithmetic and mensuration | 6. Yes |
| 7. Geography | 7. Yes |
| 8. British and Canadian History | 8. Yes |
| 9. Nature Study | 9. Yes |

⁷Annual Reports, etc., 1903, pp. 11-12.

<u>Optional Subjects</u>	<u>Examination Subject?</u>
10. Hygiene and Temperance	10. No
11. Penmanship	11. (Composition paper)
12. Drawing	12. Yes
13. Algebra	13. No
14. Geometry	14. Yes
15. Bookkeeping	15. No
16. Agriculture	16. Yes
17. Music	17. No ⁸

In 1902-03 the numbers of examinations expected of candidates in Standards V to VIII had been reduced: Standard V from 12 to 10; Standard VI from 13 to 10; Standard VII from 13 to 9, and Standard VIII from 14 to 9.⁹ The desire, apparently, was to study fewer subjects more thoroughly.

The types of questions asked on examinations are the same as those of 1892-1901. This assertion is borne out by the quotations given in another part of this chapter in the section, "The Aims For the School."

From the evidence that can be gathered about teaching procedures, it appears that these procedures continued to be fairly formal. There were certain facts, principles and skills for which the teacher was responsible. He had texts to help him. He lectured, questioned and drilled as the occasion demanded. As a 1901 statement said of too close an adherence by teachers to texts:

⁸Ibid., p. 97. The optional subjects are defined as "those whose study may with the consent of his parents be omitted by a student unless he intends to be a candidate for examination, in which case he must complete the courses prescribed in algebra, geometry, and agriculture.

⁹Ibid., p. 18.

. . .It is not sufficiently realized that while it is the business of the book to narrate, it is the duty of the teacher to illustrate, explain and supplement.¹⁰

The same statement was critical, too, of the emphasis in all schools upon teaching historical materials in a strict, logical order.

It is apparent from examinations and examiners' comments that the text really was an important element in the instruction, even if it was often abused. The examiners refer often to students' knowledge of the "book work." And in literature, particularly, there was great emphasis upon the closest possible study of a few selected masterpieces.¹¹

Yet, educational thought of the time suggested also (as in 1892-1901) that classroom instruction had to be related as closely as possible to life outside the classroom. It was suggested, for example, that certain kinds of field work could be done in geography,¹² that in nature study and agriculture the effect of close observation and analysis of common objects and occurrences was plainly observable in the pupils' attitude to other branches of study and in the care of the school grounds,¹³ that in botany pupils should be thinking less of formal classification of plants and more of obtaining a practical knowledge of plants that would be of direct service,¹⁴ that arithmetic problems should have due relation to the demands of modern commercial and business life,¹⁵ and that lessons in hygiene should be on those topics of immediate concern and value to pupils--cleanliness, good water, exercise, rest,

¹⁰Annual Report, etc., 1901, p. 38.

¹¹Ibid., 1902, p. 19. ¹²Ibid., 1901, p. 39.

¹³Ibid., p. 41. ¹⁴Ibid., p. 42. ¹⁵Ibid., p. 78.

wholesome food, temperate habits.¹⁶

It is also suggested that as far as possible, certain subjects should be related to other subjects in the teaching process. Grammar should be related to the teaching of composition and literature,¹⁷ history related to geography,¹⁸ composition linked with geography, history, agriculture and literature,¹⁹ and nature study and agriculture related to language, drawing and geography.²⁰ There is no great stress upon this linking, or "correlation," but it is suggested that teachers take advantage of such occasions as present themselves to use ideas from one subject in the teaching of another.

A third relationship is evident in the literature of this period--the need to relate new material to material previously taught. In most instances this relationship is stated as a need to teach thoroughly, to so ground pupils in the essentials of a subject that they could progress logically to the next higher standard. This need is well stated by D. F. McColl, Normal School Principal in 1903:

. . .As far as possible stress is laid in the Normal School upon the importance of thoroughness along the common branches of study, and it is hoped that teachers-in-training will be fully alive to the necessity not only of making themselves proficient in the subjects they are called upon to teach but also of seeing that their pupils receive a thorough drill in the same.²¹

III. AIMS FOR THE SCHOOL

The aims for the school in this period are not different from what

¹⁶Ibid., p. 81.

¹⁷Ibid., p. 36.

¹⁸Ibid., p. 38.

¹⁹Ibid., p. 77.

²⁰Ibid.

²¹Annual Report, etc., 1902, p. 18.

they were previously. The following group of quotations, taken from examiners' reports, shows a continuation of the aim of giving intellectual development:

The answer papers in poetical literature reveal a satisfactory knowledge of the subject matter and a general appreciation of its literary value. Evidently the teaching has been on sound lines. . . .²²

With few exceptions knowledge of the book work (in grammar) is satisfactory. That the reasoning power has received considerably less training than the memory is evident. . . .²³

The subexaminers urge that the so called "history note books" be thrown away, that pupils be trained to reason more. . . .²⁴

General knowledge of the subject is fair. . .but pupils are unable to make the (geographical) applications called for in the paper.²⁵

Assuming this paper to be a fair test, the arithmetical knowledge of the candidates is deficient. Some candidates know so little of the subject that one wonders who advised them to write. . . .The reasoning of the better candidates is very fair. . . .²⁶

. . .The candidates' answers (in physics) indicate a fairly complete knowledge of definitions and principles but a very general inability to apply this knowledge in special cases. This application very properly forms an important part of a paper on any such subject, so that the weakness here is serious. . .the pupils' reasoning powers should be developed. . . .²⁷

As has been indicated in the section above on "Teaching Procedures," Principal McColl of the Regina Normal School was concerned about the intellectual development of his pupils.²⁸

The second previous aim, the care of the body, is evidenced through the continued work in Hygiene - Physiology, and in alcohol and tobacco.²⁹

²²Annual Report, etc., 1902, p. 18.

²³Ibid., p. 19.

²⁴Ibid., p. 21.

²⁵Ibid.

²⁶Ibid., p. 22.

²⁷Ibid., p. 24.

²⁸Ibid., 1903, p. 41.

²⁹Ibid., p. 93.

Evidence indicates that other 1892-1901 aims were carried forward in 1901-1905. For example, course work in the public schools in Manners and Morals used the same course of studies as previously. History and Literature remained sources of moral instruction. There was still prescribed in History, for example, discussion of the lives of distinguished men; this was to assist in moral discrimination and the principles of conduct. History also acted as a preparation for intelligent citizenship. It also helped immigrants to be assimilated.

A teachers' Committee on Art in 1902 dwelt on the cultivation of the aesthetic impulse. "Of the helpfulness of beautiful environment Plato has written. . . .If our teachers are not a source of inspiration and guidance our children will receive little assistance in forming a love for the beautiful."³⁰ Speaking of room decorations, the Committee said that they added to the attractiveness and cheerfulness of the school room; they had collateral uses in composition, history, nature study and geography; and "they cultivate a love of beauty and so reinforce moral training."³¹

The general role of the school in preparing the child to grow in many ways in preparation for his taking a place in society is indicated in a 1902 statement by Dr. Goggin:

. . .Unless the pupil leaves our school with refined and gentle manners, with a self-control sufficient to free him from the need of external restraint and guidance, with clear knowledge of his duties and sound views of the worth of life and its prizes, with a power of growth and a thirst after knowledge, the schools have not done their best work for him, however broad and accurate his scholarship may be.³²

³⁰Ibid., 1902, p. 60.

³¹Ibid.

³²Ibid., p. 79.

The emphasis among aims remains the same as it was during 1892-1901.

IV. THE SCHOOL AND SOCIETY

In previous chapters answers have been sought to the following questions:

1. What is the nature of society?
2. What is the form of the school?
3. What is supposed to be the school's relationship to social change?

For the period of 1901-1905 there is no evidence to indicate that the answers to these questions are any different from what they were in 1892-1901.

V. LABELS

There is still no one particular term that is applied to the educational ideas of the time.

With respect to basic philosophy it is noted that the Manners and Morals program still spoke in this period of such topics as "reverence"³³; it may be assumed that the basic philosophy was still a form of Idealism.³⁴ There are, however, no direct statements in the publications of this period about "God," "Nature's God" or "Divine purposes." This lack may be

³³Annual Report, etc., 1902, p. 79.

³⁴Also, the Educational Council was composed of individuals selected for their adherence to some form of Christian Idealism.

an accident of circumstances, since there are so few publications for the period. It may also be a result of Dr. Goggin's resignation in 1902; Dr. Goggin appears to have been the author of all those official statements which indicated the school's foundation in Idealism.

VI. CHANGE AND THE REASONS FOR CHANGE

Changes in this period were two: the introduction of electives in Standards V to VIII, and the reduction of the total number of examinations required in these same standards. The latter change has been commented upon. With respect to electives, it appears that this change was in accordance with a statement made earlier by Dr. Goggin:

The great majority of high school pupils do not go to college and should not prepare for teachers' examinations. It is the needs of pupils and not the entrance requirements of colleges and professional schools that must shape the high school course of studies.³⁵

In Dr. Goggin's opinion, the work of the high school lay in the training undergone, the habits formed, the knowledge of literature, history, mathematics and science acquired. This work must be a satisfactory preparation for life; if so it must surely be a good preparation on which to base higher studies, too. To meet the needs of high school pupils there must be some flexibility in the program offered to them; electives were a means of accomplishing this flexibility. This is a significant change in educational thinking, for it means that educators were taking more account of individual abilities and interests. They were not assuming that all children were equal in all respects, or that all children must take exactly the same studies in order to secure an

³⁵Report of the Council of Public Instruction, etc., 1900, p. 26.

"education."

VII. SUMMARY

This short period of four years embodies ideas in the tradition of the preceding period, 1892-1901. The curriculum was the same in the public school and much the same in the high school, although some pupil choice of subjects was introduced in Standards V to VIII. Many texts were the same. Departmental examinations did not differ in type, continuing to test memory first of all, and judgment and certain skills to a lesser extent. Formal lesson procedures were intended not only to secure a pupil a grasp of essential subject matter, but were to be linked with other subjects and with events and examples outside the classroom. The aims of the school appear to be the same. The school continued to be a place in which a pupil's growth was fostered so that he might take his place as a developed human being in the society in which he was to make a living.

CHAPTER VI

ALBERTA: THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, 1905-1912

This chapter will deal with educational developments in Alberta from the time of the province's formation to the time of the first major revision of curriculum and courses of study (1912).

I. THE CENTRAL EDUCATIONAL AUTHORITY

In 1905 the provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan were formed out of the major part of the North West Territories. Various government departments were organized, each with a responsible minister at the head. Alberta's first Minister of Education was the Hon. A. C. Rutherford. To serve the minister there was a Deputy, an office staff of eight, seven Inspectors of Schools, four members of the Normal School staff, and one Supervisor of Schools Among Foreigners. To advise the Minister, there was an Educational Council of five members chosen along sectarian lines (Catholic and non-Catholic).¹

II. FEATURES OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Classification and Organization

After 1905, classification of pupils by Standards continued. In organization the public or "common" school still consisted of the first

¹Annual Report of the Department of Education of the Province of Alberta, 1906, p. 7. The civil servants involved, of course, were appointed with no qualification as to religion.

five Standards, the high school of Standards VI - VIII.

Curriculum, Courses of Study, Texts and References

Courses of study and texts for Standards I to IV remained much the same as Territorial authorizations of 1895-1905. With minor variations of a word or two in several subjects, 1911 course outlines in these Standards were the same word for word as those of 1903. Texts were changed in a few instances (e.g., Reading, Agriculture and Nature Study). The curriculum in 1911 was exactly the same as in 1903.

In Standard V, the curriculum of 1910 was much like that prescribed in 1903. Some course outlines were changed (e.g. Algebra and Geometry), some texts were changed (e.g. Music, Hygiene and Temperance), Algebra was added as an examination subject for high school entrance in 1907, and dropped completely from the curriculum in 1911; Physical Culture was added in 1911. Apart from these minor variations, however, the various courses of study and lists of subjects are the same as in 1911 as they were in 1903.²

In Standard VI the curriculum and examination subjects of 1910 were the same as those of 1903. In 1911, Standard VI was divided into Grades IX and X in preparation for the curriculum revision of 1912. In 1911, Reading was dropped from the curriculum for both grades; Botany and Agriculture, Bookkeeping and Writing were not present on the Grade X curriculum of that year, and the final examination in Drawing for IX was eliminated. In essentials, though (general curriculum, many of the texts

²1903 is used since it is the last year in which the Department of Education of the North West Territories published an annual report.

and course outlines), 1911 is not distinguishable from 1903.

In Standard VII, the curriculum of 1906 dropped the 1903 Animal Life and Chemistry; in 1910 these were again placed on the curriculum. Grammar and Rhetoric, optional in 1903, was made obligatory in 1906 and remained so. Drawing (obligatory) was dropped in 1910. Botany (obligatory) and Agriculture (optional), while added in 1906, were dropped completely in 1910. Arithmetic and Mensuration was added in 1906 as an obligatory subject. Many of the course outlines and texts of 1911 are the same as those of 1903. Apart from some of these incidental changes, then, the curriculum kept a constant core of Literature, Composition, History, Geography, Geometry, Algebra, Arithmetic and Mensuration, Grammar and Rhetoric.

What has been said about Standards I to VII applies also to Standard VIII. With relatively minor alterations, the provisions of 1905-12 were those of 1902-05.

In general, then, the school program of 1905 remained an academic program, with some concession to vocational training in agriculture and bookkeeping.³ At this time, though, there was growing a belief in the value of manual training for boys and household science for girls. Courses in these subjects had been given from time to time at various places in the Territories and in the province of Alberta. In Territorial days (1901), Sir William C. MacDonald established manual training schools at Calgary and Regina. Public school pupils attended these schools; Normal School students took a lesson a week during the Normal School session. The

³Keeping in mind the function of the high school in preparing students for teaching and other professions.

manual training consisted of exercises in wood, cardboard, and mechanical drawing. Calgary school trustees asked the Department of Education of the North West Territories to place manual training on the school program as a regular subject. By 1902 woodwork was also being taught at Nose Creek, a rural school district close to Calgary. By 1903 Normal School students were taking courses in modelling, cardboard and wood.⁴ It was hoped that work would be done in many schools in the first two of these, if not in wood. In 1906 the Principal of the Alberta Normal School noted that many towns and cities were increasing their attention to Music, Drawing, Art, Manual Training and Domestic Science; Principal Bryan indicated that the 1906 term of four months, for teacher training, was not an adequate time in which to deal with these subjects as well as all of the others on the Normal School curriculum.⁵ In 1907, a Mr. J. C. Miller was added to the Normal School staff; among other subjects he taught Manual Training.⁶

Inspector Fife reported in 1909 that Edmonton had special supervisors for Art, Music, Physical Culture, Manual Training and Domestic Science. The handwork (Standards I to IV) was considered a pronounced success. For instance, the interest of boys in school work generally was improved. The boys seemed steadier, more accurate, more reliable. The handwork not only furnished an outlet for constructive impulses, but it had a marked socializing influence. "It would appear," said Inspector

⁴Annual Report, etc., 1903, p. 42.

⁵Annual Report, etc., 1906, p. 39.

⁶Annual Report, etc., 1907, p. 38.

Fife, "that this work is demonstrating its right to recognition as a legitimate educational instrument in urban schools, and it should be given status on the course of elementary school work. . . ." ⁷ Inspector McKerricher stated in 1910 that Lethbridge was contemplating a forward step along education lines--the introduction of Manual Training and Domestic Science. ⁸ And Inspector Fife wrote in 1911 that even in some rural school districts a beginning had been made in paper folding, paper cutting, and modelling in clay or plasticine. Some sewing had been taught, too--"the girls enjoy it and the parents appreciate it." ⁹

Such are the beginnings of further attempts to broaden the school curriculum; this movement was to see formal recognition of "handwork" in the 1912 curriculum revision.

Departmental Examinations

The examination papers for Standards V to VIII of this period do not appear to differ materially from those of the 1892-1901 or 1901-05 periods. The papers continue to test memory to a high degree, and judgment (application) and certain skills (e.g., drawing new objects) to lesser degrees. ¹⁰

Promotion Policy

Pupils in Standards I-IV received promotion upon local recommendations. Those in Standards V-VIII secured advancement from standard to

⁷Annual Report, etc., 1907, p. 45.

⁸Ibid., 1910, p. 64. ⁹Ibid., 1911, p. 50.

¹⁰Many questions tested both memory and judgment combined.

standard by writing Departmental examinations.

Teaching Procedures

The procedure used in preparing pupils for local school promotion examinations or for Departmental examinations seemed to be a formal lecture, lecture-question, or study-recitation procedure. In 1913 the Principal of the Calgary Normal School pointed out some of the prevailing procedures and questioned the current version of the formal memoriter style of recitation (he was not questioning the recitation method itself). His comments are worth quoting in full:

The most conspicuous weaknesses in practice teaching are due to a lack of knowledge of the subject matter, not merely as a collection of facts, but as a development of the pupil's experience; that is, a dynamic rather than a static knowledge of the subject to be taught. From this defect result, for example, lack of interest in the pupils, failure to appreciate either their dominant lines of interest or their difficulties, and impractical and ill-arranged lesson exercises. And this is due, in the first place, no doubt, to the formal memoriter style of recitation conducted in most of our schools. If, on the contrary, the pupils not only in the high school grades, but in the elementary as well, were called upon to recite in the manner of a demonstration to their fellow pupils rather than a private conversation in an undertone with the teacher, and in the higher grades, to present plans of the development of a month's or term's work, and were thus led to observe or feel the development of a body of organized knowledge in their own experience, not only would they be benefitted as a whole, and taught more effectively how to study, but those who in Grades XI and XIII looked forward to the work of teaching would be receiving some real. . .training.¹¹

Inspector Thibaudeau commented in 1910 on certain common defects

¹¹Annual Report, etc., 1913, p. 31. In 1906 the Normal School Principal had said of teacher-trainees observing experienced teachers: "They are asked to note not only the choice of subject matter and the methods adopted. . . ,but also the incentives to which appeal is made, the devices for economizing time, . . . the use made by the teacher of apparatus and the general attitude of teacher to pupils and pupils to teacher." (Annual Report, etc., 1906, p. 38.)

in class management in the schools of his inspectorate:

. . .Probably the most common of these are faulty methods of questioning, unrestrained simultaneous answering by pupils and unsystematic division of time between seat work and class teaching.¹²

Aided in most instances, then, by a single text per subject, and teaching by a lecture-question, text-question or study-recitation procedure, the teacher was expected to arouse interest in the lesson ("Do not expect the children to arouse the interest," "Youthful instincts are more trustworthy as a guide to interest than our reasonings"¹³), to secure class attention from pupils ("Attention is the condition of memory," "Exhaustive observation is an element in all great success"¹⁴), to get pupils both talking and thinking ("Never 'hear recitations'," "Keep the class thinking," "Judgment is the most deficient faculty"¹⁵), to form the right kinds of habits ("Repetition forms habit," "Training is leading to do, till the habit of doing is formed"¹⁶), and to make lessons so illuminating that the pupils were made enthusiastic about the lesson ideas ("Zeal is born of ideas resulting from vivid and complete impressions"¹⁷). The teacher was supposed to observe the operations of child mind,¹⁸ to vary teaching devices to suit the needs, and to quit wrong

¹²Annual Report, etc., 1910, p. 53.

¹³Annual Report, etc., 1907, p. 184.

¹⁴Ibid. ¹⁵Ibid.

¹⁶Ibid. Inspector Ellis wrote in 1908 that there was no plausible reason for some teachers slighting drawing and writing, two subjects which, probably more than any others, illustrate the maxim "Learn to do by doing" (Annual Report, etc., 1908, p. 41.)

¹⁷Ibid. ¹⁸Ibid.

methods as soon as discovered.¹⁹ All of this was to be accomplished in what was hoped would be a happy atmosphere in which petty fault-finding would have no place.²⁰ As the Principal of the Normal School and Inspector Thibaudeau have pointed out, the actual methods in vogue in many schools did not approach the ideal situation closely enough.

Another aspect of the teaching process should be mentioned. It is that lessons were to be made as interesting and practical as possible by the relating of lesson material to events, problems and objects in everyday life outside the school. Since 1895 the course of study in arithmetic had said that problems should have due relation to the demands of business life. Inspector Russell, Calgary, said in 1907 that the chief defects in the teaching of geography resulted from its being taught almost wholly from the text. "The local geographical features, and the everyday natural phenomena of the district in which the pupil lives should be used more largely in the introduction of the subject."²¹ Inspector McKerricher complained as follows in 1909:

. . .History is chiefly valuable as explaining present situations and for the light it throws on present practical problems, and yet few teachers ever refer to current events. A case might be instanced of even a high school teacher who discussed at length the old question of the Athenian naval policy without even a passing reference to our own naval question.²²

Inspector McNally wrote with satisfaction in 1911 that when in anticipation of the new Course of Studies many of the teachers were requested to combine their nature study with the work in local geography,

¹⁹Ibid. ²⁰Ibid.

²¹Annual Report, etc., 1907, p. 45.

²²Annual Report, etc., 1911, p. 54.

one result was a greatly increased interest on the part of both teachers and pupils in their surroundings.²³

In 1905-12, courses of study also continued to point out that various subjects in the curriculum should be related to other subjects.²⁴ In the same vein, Inspector Smith commented of arithmetic and algebra as follows:

. . .The teaching of algebra in Standard V is. . .nothing but a confused juggling of symbols. The weakness in the teaching of this subject I attribute to its entire separation from arithmetic. The teacher should see that the pupil constantly holds fast to the shore line of arithmetic while he ventures out upon the sea of algebra.²⁵

In addition to school subjects being related to life outside the classroom and to other subjects, there continued to be an emphasis upon thoroughness in teaching--upon making sure that when new material was taught it could be related properly and easily to the old. The inspectors' reports of 1905-12 are full of comments in this respect, particularly about indiscriminate promotions. One brief quotation will suffice:

There is a tendency among. . .teachers in our rural schools to promote the pupils before they have a thorough grasp of the work in the grade from which they have been promoted. This tendency has been detrimental to the work in a number of schools, as it makes the pupils satisfied with a very superficial knowledge of the subjects studied and hampers the work of their successors who teach the work with skill and thoroughness.²⁶

III. AIMS FOR THE SCHOOL

The Departmental publications of 1905-12 show a concern for the

²³Annual Report, etc., 1911, p. 54.

²⁴See Chapter V, section on "Procedures."

²⁵Annual Report, etc., 1908, p. 54.

²⁶Ibid., p. 42.

same school aims as did publications of 1892-1901 and 1901-05. Various statements in 1905-12 support this contention. For example, the courses of study in Standards I - IV contain the following views:

1. The value of literature in inculcating reverence, love of country, love of nature and admiration of moral courage.
2. The part played by grammar in revealing the logical and essential nature of thought.
3. The part played by history in training the moral judgment and preparing the student for intelligent citizenship (patriotism and civic duty).
4. The role of nature study and agriculture in training pupils in habits of careful observation and clear expression.
5. The necessity for clearness of reasoning, accuracy of statement and elegance of form in the solution of mathematical problems.
6. The practical value of teaching hygiene and physiology.
7. The purposes of teaching temperance in the use of alcohol and tobacco.
8. The necessity for pupils to conduct themselves in a mannerly and moral fashion.

Statements by Normal School principals and by school inspectors tend to bear out the notions outlined above, as well as to support other aims for education. Principal Bryan, in 1906, was concerned about the academic attainments of some of his pupils. While students apparently had good reasoning ability and adequate scholarship, their power of expressing their thoughts was not commendable. "Work notably defective

in composition, spelling and writing is by no means uncommon."²⁷ Principal Bryan's solution was to raise standards in school inspection and at Departmental examinations. And Inspector Parker, writing of the short terms in many of his rural schools, said that "In many cases pupils grow to maturity without receiving a thorough grounding in the three R's."²⁸

Solicitous of pupils' health, inspectors commented often on the need for more cleanliness in caretaking of school rooms. Said Inspector Ellis, "People who would not think of letting their own house go without scrubbing it every week think that once every three months is sufficient for the school."²⁹

Consideration for the aesthetic is instanced again and again in inspectors' reports and comments about the cleanliness and decoration of school rooms, as well as in inspectors' attempts at stimulating school boards to provide some landscaping of school grounds.³⁰

Religious knowledge and development was provided as before through the legal provisions for religious instruction at the end of the school day.

Vocational preparation was still present in a limited fashion in such subjects as agriculture and bookkeeping. The new courses in Domestic Science and Manual Training, while intended as general education, yet had a vocational component.

²⁷Annual Report, etc., 1906, p. 39.

²⁸Annual Report, etc., 1911, p. 60.

²⁹Annual Report, etc., 1907, p. 39.

³⁰Annual Report, etc., 1906, pp. 47,50,54; and 1907, p. 39.

Inspector Ross wrote in 1906 of the neglect of manners and morals in many schools; the subject was not taught often enough or well enough. "This is a serious mistake as the embryo citizen should receive training in his impressionable years in his duties toward society."³¹ In the same year, Inspector Thibaudeau decried the ratepayers' measuring of a teacher by the number of successful candidates she had in Departmental examinations; the ratepayers should rather measure the teacher by "that teacher's influence for good on the character of her pupils."³² Inspector Brown, in 1910, was seriously concerned about mixing bigger children with little ones in the primary classes, since these classes were often dismissed for part of each half day. Apparently, cases had been reported of boys conducting themselves most improperly in the presence of little girls on the playground. There was also a problem of children being left unsupervised at noon hour while the teacher went to a nearby house for lunch. Inspector Brown expressed his concern in this fashion:

Parents realize more than they ever did that the way certain truths are presented to children decides to a great extent whether they shall grow up clean in body and mind or otherwise. A smudge on a child's mind can never be wiped off. What use for mothers to be vigilance itself at home when the work of years is undone in an hour at school, where the roughest and gentlest of both sexes mingle for a considerable time each day without any oversight whatever! Would it be too much to insist that the teachers of such schools thoroughly supervise the outdoor conduct of the pupils? Eternal vigilance is the price, but is it not worth while?³³

³¹Annual Report, etc., 1906, p. 52.

³²Annual Report, etc., 1906, p. 48. Inspector Thibaudeau, in the same report, commented that "It is not what a man has but what he is that makes him a desirable, worthy, citizen."

³³Annual Report, etc., 1910, p. 55.

Citizenship received attention, too. Inspector Hill recorded in 1910 that he was more and more impressed with the importance of citizenship as the aim of school activity. He sympathized with the desire of foreign-born parents to secure for their children a knowledge of their mother tongue, but he thought that such a desire ought not to deprive any child of the benefit of an inspiration to become a loyal Canadian citizen.³⁴ A Supervisor of Schools Among Foreigners helped colonies of immigrants to establish schools. Inspector Thibaudeau, in commenting on a basketball tournament in which boys and girls played together, said that there was not a rough or rude act or word. "If the chief purpose of education is the development of such characters in our girls and boys as will make of them good citizens, then the teachers of these schools are most creditably doing their duty."³⁵ An examination question for First Class teachers in 1908 asked candidates to discuss this question: "The end of all study is growth and manhood, not mere ability to pass an examination."³⁶ In 1912, one of the inspectors, impatient with unsupervised play on schoolgrounds wrote as follows:

We talk a great deal at conventions and read in school journals of "developing character and training for good citizenship," but what character are we developing by merely making a boy sit quietly when in the school room at his studies, and letting him run riot in language and deed on the playground?³⁷

³⁴ Annual Report, etc., 1910, pp. 48-49.

³⁵ Annual Report, etc., 1908, p. 46.

³⁶ Ibid., p. 195.

³⁷ Annual Report, etc., 1912, p. 49.

IV. EMPHASIS AMONG AIMS

The relative emphases among aims remains unchanged from 1892-1912. Hence, the following chart repeats the information found in Chapter IV concerning 1892-1901. Again, the more emphasized aims are at the left, the less emphasized to the right.

1. Intellectual Development

The Three R's
 A Body of Knowledge
 A Grasp of General Principles
 Development of Reasoning Power
 Development of Powers of Observation
 Mental Discipline

2. Physical Health

3. Aesthetic Development

4. Religious Knowledge and Development

5. Vocational Preparation

6. Morality and Good Character

7. Social Behavior

8. Preparation for Home and Family Life

9. Development of Citizenship

V. WHO SHOULD BE EDUCATED?

School authorities of the period considered that an academic program was the most suitable for all types of young people. There is an indication, though, that other subjects were being considered as legitimate sources of general education. Such sentiments had their logical outcome in 1912-22 when the high school curricula, in particular,

was broadened; this meant that the education system was providing for more abilities and thus for the retention of more pupils.

Deaf mutes continued to be provided for in facilities outside of the province.

VI. THE NATURE OF SOCIETY, AND SOCIAL CHANGE

Publications of this period contain no statements that bear directly upon two of the sub-questions of this study:

1. In what kind of society is the school functioning?
2. What role does the school have with respect to social change?

We might assume here, though, as was assumed for earlier periods, that society was basically stable. Settlers, for instance, flowing into Alberta, were expected to send their children to schools that taught established ideas about Canadian institutions and Canadian history. Since society appeared to be stable, since no basic changes were occurring apparently in social, economic or religious thought, the school does not seem to have been assigned any role in effecting social change.

VII. THE FORM OF THE SCHOOL

With respect to a third sub-problem of this study, the form of the school, what has been said in the two previous chapters appears to be applicable here, too. The school was seen as a form of social organization having the task of stimulating present growth in the child so that he could eventually fit into society--to "live" in it, and make a living. As a special institution developed by society to carry out certain tasks, the school had its own organization, procedures and customs.

VIII. EDUCATIONAL IDEAS: A LABEL

No single term is applicable to the educational ideas of 1905-1912. While the academic program of some public schools had been broadened through the addition of Domestic Science and Manual Training, these subjects were not considered as "revolutionary" or as "frills." They were simply regarded as adding another element of general education to a child's schooling.

If one had asked a government official of the time what terms he would use to describe the total program, one would probably have received an answer in such terms as "sensible," or "practical," or "good general education."

X. BASIC PHILOSOPHY: A LABEL

For this period there is no specific evidence to indicate the basic philosophy lying behind the aims of the school. The aims appear to be the same, however, as in the Idealistic period of 1892-1901, and the course of studies for Manners and Morals still speaks of "reverence," "gratitude and thankfulness," "forgiveness," and "confession." These are terms normally associated with a religious and Idealistic point of view. Upon this slim evidence, then, one might hazard the statement that Idealism still lies in a general way behind the educational ideas of 1905-1912. This statement is given some added strength when one remembers the composition of the Minister of Education's Educational Council; this body was constituted along sectarian religious lines.

XI. CHANGE AND THE REASONS FOR CHANGE

In 1905 a provincial Department of Education was organized in the Province of Alberta. This was a natural change following upon the division of the North West Territories.

Alberta carried forward most of the Territorial arrangements in education. Texts, courses of study, examinations, promotions, and teaching procedures were much the same in 1905-12 as before. In pupil programs, the introduction of Manual Training and Domestic Science indicated that educators were viewing pupils' abilities and interests more broadly than before. Through the introduction of these two subjects, the vocational aims of the school were strengthened slightly; and the question "Who should be educated" was beginning to receive a slightly different answer. In time, Alberta educators would say, "We must develop many talents of our boys and girls. If a child has manual talents we should try to develop these at the same time as we develop the more abstract components of his intellect."

The aim of developing good citizens was strengthened through the work of a school inspector entitled the Supervisor of Schools Among Foreigners.

XI. SUMMARY

Texts, courses of study, examinations, teaching procedures, the aims of the school and the basic philosophy behind the school's aims--all of these are in essence the same in 1905-12 as in 1901-05. A slight modification in curriculum has been noted above.

CHAPTER VII

ALBERTA: DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, 1912-1922

This chapter will deal with the first provincial curriculum revision, that of 1912-14, and with a further revision of the elementary school course of studies in 1918.

I. FEATURES OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Classification and Organization

In 1912 the first five "standards" became the first eight "grades"; these continued to be classed as the "public" school. Standards VI, VII, and VIII became Grades IX, X, XI and XII of the high school.¹

Curriculum

Some idea of the nature of curriculum changes made in 1912 and 1918 in the elementary school may be obtained if we place in parallel lists the subjects of 1910, 1912 and 1918.

1910	1912	1918
Reading and Literature	Reading and Literature	Reading (separate course) Literature "
Orthoepy and Spelling	Spelling	Spelling
Composition	Composition	Composition
Grammar	Grammar (Grades IV-VIII)	Grammar (IV-VIII)

¹Though in 1918 and 1919 the Edmonton Public School system developed several "junior high schools" (Grades VII, VIII, IX). These apparently did not last too long, or spread within Edmonton or the province.

1910	1912	1918
History (Standards II-V)	History and Civics (Grades V-VIII)	History and Civics (Grades V-VIII)
Geography	Geography (Grades V-VIII)	Geography (V-VIII)
Nature Study and Agriculture	Nature Study (Grades I-IV) Agriculture (VII-VIII)	Nature Study (Agriculture, VII-VIII)
Arithmetic	Arithmetic	Arithmetic
Drawing	Drawing	Art
Music	Music	Music
Hygiene-Physiology	Hygiene	Hygiene
Manners and Morals	--	--
Penmanship	Writing	Writing
	Geometry (Grade VIII)	Geometry (VIII)
	Manual Training and Household Science (Grades I-VIII)	Manual Training and Household Arts (I-VIII)
	Physical Culture (I-VIII)	Physical Training ²

A comparison of the curricula for the above years reveals three distinct additions in 1912--Civics, Manual Training and Household Science, and Physical Culture. In actual fact, Civics material had previously been in a general way a part of historical studies, and Physical Culture a part of Hygiene and Physiology.³ It is Manual Training and Household Science, then, that indicate a formal broadening of the elementary school

²Annual Reports, etc., 1910, pp. 82-94; 1912, p. 81; and Course of Studies for the Public Schools, Grades I-VIII, Alberta, 1918, p. 7.

³The new courses expanded and particularized the course material in these subjects. Civics, offered in Grades VII-VIII in 1912 was offered in Grades V-VIII in the 1918 revision.

curriculum. The reasons for this new authorization will be detailed later in this chapter. (See "The Aims for Education.") Manners and Morals no longer constituted a separate subject on the curriculum.

As the following analysis illustrates, the Public School Leaving programs of 1910, 1912, and 1918 differed little one from the other. The 1912 examinations dropped Algebra and added Reading; the 1918 "Drawing" examination was entitled "Art." In all of these years each pupil was required to write an even dozen examinations. The curriculum continued to consist in the main of the academic and the "essential," the "traditional" studies (though Grade VIII pupils were eligible to take such courses as Manual Training and Music if these were offered).

1910	1912	1918
Literature	Literature	Literature
Composition	Composition	Composition
Grammar	Grammar	Grammar
Orthoepy and Spelling	Spelling	Spelling
Arithmetic and Mensuration	Arithmetic and Mensuration	Arithmetic
Geometry	Geometry	Geometry
History	History and Civics	History and Civics
Algebra	--	--
Geography	Geography	Geography
Nature Study and Agriculture	Agriculture	Nature Study
Drawing	Drawing	Art
Penmanship	Writing	Writing

1910

1912

1918

Reading

Reading⁴

In the high school in the 1912 revision, there were a few minor changes and additions. Reading became a part of the course in Literature. In the lower grades Zoology and Physics were introduced. Greek was added as a language in addition to French, German and Latin; thus, in Grade XII in addition to the obligatory subjects, a student was given a choice of Physical Science or Chemistry, and had the option of writing on any two of Algebra, Geometry, Latin, French, German or Greek. This general curriculum, then, was academic in nature, as the 1905-12 program had been. In the main, high school students were preparing for the Normal School or the University and were under the necessity of writing the Department of Education external examinations in each of the high school grades.

However, shortly after 1912, the process of broadening the curriculum, already begun in the elementary school, reached into the high school grades. In the early part of 1913 the provincial government decided to take the initial steps leading to the development of a general provincial policy regarding technical education. A provincial director of technical education was appointed.⁵

The director, Dr. James C. Miller, noted that provincial policy involved not only the elementary but also the secondary grades. He looked

⁴Annual Reports, etc., 1910, p. 97; pp. 142-143; Course of Studies for the Public Schools, Grades I-VIII, Alberta, 1918, p. 7.

⁵Annual Report, etc., 1914, p. 39.

forward to the following:

The modification of the course of study for the high school grades in such a way as to give a better balanced course for all students. This necessitates provision for instruction in the manual and household arts, in music and the fine arts. . . .These courses should receive due credit in connection with the requirements for admission to the Normal Schools and the Provincial University.⁶

Dr. Miller also hoped to introduce Agriculture into the work of Grade XI and this was accomplished immediately. In 1914, a two year commercial course was offered for the first time in high schools at Lethbridge, Medicine Hat, Calgary and Edmonton.⁷ The subjects offered were as follows:

<u>First Year</u>	<u>Second Year</u>
<u>General</u>	<u>General</u>
English Literature	Same
English Composition	Same
Canadian History and Civics	Geography
English Grammar	--
Spelling	Same
Arithmetic	Same
Penmanship	Same
	Rapid Calculation
<u>Special</u>	<u>Special</u>
Bookkeeping	Bookkeeping and Accounting
Business Forms	Commerical Law
Stenography Theory	Commerical Correspondence
Typewriting	Same
Rapid Calculation	--
	Stenography Practice
<u>Optional</u>	<u>Optional</u>
Algebra	Algebra ⁸
French	French ⁸

⁶Ibid., p. 40. A technical high school was in operation in Edmonton by 1913.

⁷Ibid., p. 49. Commercial work had been offered at Calgary in 1907-08, and in Edmonton in 1911-12; Ontario courses of study were followed.

⁸Ibid., p. 191.

It would appear that curriculum makers were attempting to keep an essential core of English, History and Arithmetic, while adding the specialized subjects of a commercial course.

In 1915 the Chief Inspector of Schools said that "During the last two years there has been considerable reorganization to meet the needs of the people. . . ." ⁹ He went on further:

. . . courses in commercial work are in operation. . . and practical instruction in agriculture and school gardening has been introduced. The courses in art, mechanical drawing, and the domestic arts have received more attention, and preparation is being made by the larger schools for a two year's high school course in manual training. ¹⁰

By 1919, Music had been placed on the high school program. ¹¹

The Supervisor of Schools said in 1920:

New courses in Music, Household Economics, Art and Manual Arts, for the secondary schools were prepared during the year. . . . By a change in the high school regulations students may now select three of the following subjects: Music, Algebra, Geometry, Agriculture, Household Economics, Manual Arts. ¹²

While only the larger urban high schools could make much of an effort toward the provision of the newer courses, ¹³ it must be noted that it was provincial policy to have such courses officially on the curriculum.

The broadening of the curriculum in both elementary and high schools made it necessary for teachers to gain more training in the new subject matter. To this end, the Department of Education sponsored the first

⁹ Annual Report, etc., 1915, p. 23.

¹⁰ Ibid.

¹¹ Annual Report, etc., 1919, p. 17.

¹² Annual Report, etc., 1920, p. 40.

¹³ For example, in 1921 there were only twenty-three schools in the province offering instruction in Manual Training and Household Economics.

Summer School for Teachers at Edmonton in 1913. The courses offered at that time were these:

- Agriculture and Gardening
- Nature Study
- Domestic Science
- Manual Training
- Woodwork
- Physical Training
- Art Methods
- Drawing
- Painting.¹⁴

By 1918 some fifty courses were being offered leading to six certificates--Elementary Science, Elementary Household Arts, Elementary Art, Elementary Manual Arts, Elementary Woodwork, Elementary Primary Work. Courses in Educational Psychology and Administration and also in French were offered.¹⁵

In 1914 the school inspectors attended special courses in agriculture, school gardening, nature study, manual training, art and physical culture.¹⁶ This inspectoral activity was in accord with words that the Minister of Education had addressed to the inspectors at a conference in 1913 when he encouraged them "to put forth even greater efforts to arouse more interest in the newer phases of education, namely, . . . agriculture and school gardening. . . ."¹⁷ Special provincial grants were made to stimulate this part of the curriculum.¹⁸

¹⁴Annual Report, etc., 1913, p. 51.

¹⁵Annual Report, etc., 1918, p. 33.

¹⁶Annual Report, etc., 1914, p. 27.

¹⁷Annual Report, etc., 1913, p. 26.

¹⁸Ibid., p. 18. Grant regulations also were designed to stimulate Manual Training, Domestic Science, Art, Music, Physical Culture.

Texts

Course outlines, particularly in the high school, continued to be largely a prescription of certain sections of a text. In Grade IX Grammar, for instance, the course outline read as follows:

A general knowledge of Chapters II, III, VI, VII, VIII, IX, X, XII, XIII, and XIV of the prescribed text; general and detailed analyses of simple passages; determining of grammatical values of words.¹⁹

Geometry in Grade IX was even simpler in prescription:

Geometry: Book I and deductions

Text Book: Baker-Theoretical Geometry for Schools.²⁰

In the lower grades of the elementary school, texts were not adhered to as closely. In some subjects--for example, Spelling, Composition, Grammar, History and Civics, Hygiene--there were no texts for certain of the lower grades at all. However, in Grades VI-VIII, the high school custom of prescribed texts was normal practice.²¹

Courses of Study

A noteworthy distinction between courses of study in 1905-12 and 1912-22 lies in the length of course outlines. Standards I-V were accommodated in thirteen pages in the first period, Grades I-VIII in sixty one pages in the second (e.g., 1912). Part of the difference lies in the attention to course detail as such, part to a more detailed explanation of teaching methods. In Reading, for instance, the 1912 course discusses at some length the thought, word and phonic methods of

¹⁹ Annual Report, etc., 1912, p. 146.

²⁰ Ibid. ²¹ Ibid., p. 81 and p. 159.

teaching primary reading, and certain elements of phonics are detailed for different periods of Grade I; none of this was done in the 1910 Course of Study.

In the high school, course outlines were more explicit and detailed, but contained no helpful suggestions as to teaching method.

The 1912 outlines, it is apparent, were designed to give teachers greater direction and guidance than they had received previously. The Normal School principal had long complained about the inadequacy of the four months training period for teachers, and the inspectors' reports reveal a desire to have course outlines that would be more definite and specific, that would be more of a help to the teacher in the one-room rural school. As J. T. Ross said in an introduction to the elementary school revision of 1918, "The revision is not radical, but indicates more definitely those parts of the course which should receive particular emphasis."²²

Departmental Examinations

In 1914, the Department stopped including copies of examination papers in the annual reports; so there exist only the Departmental papers of 1912 and 1913 for the period 1912-22. These examinations do not seem to differ in nature from those of earlier years. They had the usual emphasis upon recall of factual material (e.g., Literature, History, Agriculture, Geometry and Civics), and a demand for application of skills and principles learned (e.g., Grammar, Arithmetic, Composition, Drawing). There was some scope for individual opinion and initiative in such

²²Course of Studies for the Public Schools, Grades I-VIII, Alberta, 1918, p. 7.

subjects as Composition, Literature and History.

Promotion Policies

Promotions in Grades I-VII depended upon the teachers' discretion. Pupils in Grade VIII and the high school grades (IX-XII) wrote a battery of examinations each June. A pupil passed or failed a whole year at a time. Promotion by subject--in the high school--was yet to come.

Teaching Procedures

From the comments that are available about teaching procedures, it is apparent that these were formal.²³ The Normal School attempted to give students as much practice as possible in presenting lessons and in conducting recitations. Dr. Coffin's comment of 1913 was quoted in this respect in the last chapter. He returned to the attack in 1917:

. . .if, as at present seems likely, we are to depend mainly on our own High School pupils for our teaching force, the best thing that could happen to them would be some initiation from Grade VIII upwards, into the art of preparing and presenting lessons. . . . The testimony of inspectors is that young teachers are especially weak in organization of lesson material in such a way as to show the perspective of a course and how one lesson fits into another. . . .Very few teachers seem to grasp the real function of the recitation period. In most cases it is effective neither as a revealing and correcting of weaknesses in study and grasp of materials nor as a social exercise. . . .²⁴

In 1920, Dr. Coffin indicated that practice teaching at the Normal School received top priority, whatever else had to be omitted or condensed. Each student had to teach at least fifteen formally prepared lessons as

²³The word "formal" is used throughout this study in a descriptive sense. At no point does it have the connotation of being either "good" or "bad".

²⁴Annual Report, etc., 1917, p. 21.

well as to undertake some observation and some incidental teaching assignments.²⁵

The outline of the course in Hygiene (elementary school) concludes its introductory remarks with this statement:

The demands of the course should be met by one period per week of regular work together with incidental teaching whenever necessary. The lesson should take the form of readings or talks rather than of study.²⁶

At conventions and teachers' institutes of this period, too, a regular and popular feature of many programs was the teaching of demonstration or model lessons. For example, in 1916, at the Olds Inspectorate convention model lessons were taught to a rural school class in Primary Work, Manual Training, Art, and Agriculture.²⁷

Ideally, lessons were to be stimulating, interesting, vivid. They were to be a time of intense concentration for the pupil; strict attention was required. This was as necessary in Physical Culture and Military Training as in other subjects; as the 1912 Course of Studies said:

. . .While it is to be understood that a change from mental to physical work is a relaxation for the pupil, it is not to be supposed that the change means a relaxation of attention but only that the point of attention is changed. The three necessary features to secure satisfactory work in physical exercise are silence, steadiness, and precision, and for these attention is indispensable.²⁸

²⁵Annual Report, etc., 1920, p. 51.

²⁶Annual Report, etc., 1912, p. 134.

²⁷Annual Report, etc., 1916, p. 48.

²⁸Annual Report, etc., 1912, p. 127.

A system of formal lessons was supposed to give definiteness and continuity to the work of the school. In one instance, at least, school authorities in the city of Edmonton issued a schedule for city schools setting forth the work of the various grades, subject by subject, for each month of the year. The Chief Inspector of the Department thought this provision commendable and considered that the Separate Schools could profitably adopt a similar course. Such a schedule, he thought, would secure a certain degree of uniformity of rate of progress and even uniformity in the choice of material studied. The only caution expressed by the Chief Inspector was that this schedule should not be used to the exclusion of the provincial Course of Studies, and its directions to teachers.²⁹

Although, as has been indicated immediately above, school authorities stressed the role of formal lessons, the text, and the recitation, the broadening of the curriculum in 1912-22 also brought some changes in teaching procedures. While household and manual arts involved formal lessons, they also involved much informal consultation between instructor and pupil. In elementary Geography, Nature Study and Agriculture, there was supposed to be much field work by both teacher and pupil in the study of soils and plants, and experimental work both within and without the classroom. The care of the school garden itself was something that involved teacher and pupils in a different kind of relationship than that afforded by the formal lesson-recitation.

That the high hopes held for both the formal and informal procedures

²⁹Annual Report, etc., 1920, p. 109.

were not always realized is apparent in this series of quotations from Departmental officials (including inspectors):

Teachers holding provisional certificates are not satisfactory, usually failing lamentably in lesson presentation and discipline.³⁰

But it is perhaps in the teaching of English Grammar that the purely formal element is most in evidence. Grammar is undoubtedly one of the most poorly taught subjects on the curriculum, and the essence of the trouble lies in the formal way in which it is handled. . . .Pupils spend years learning definitions, picking out clauses and parsing words, with scarcely an idea as to the real purposes of it all.³¹

. . . Trainees show a prevalent lack of enterprise and inventiveness in arranging plans of lessons. . . .Properly supervised study periods might. . .profitably take the place of many recitations, both in the elementary and High Schools.³²

. . .There seems to be a consensus. . .that the course in History is too heavy for the average Public School child. There seems to be a tendency to overload the memory of the growing child.³³

. . .Grammar and history are not well taught. Pupils are, very largely, left to their own texts and their own resources in these two subjects. . . .³⁴

. . .Very few of our teachers deal with Nature Study well; and the teaching of Agriculture consists largely of the giving of notes which are memorized; or of the oral presentation of the facts of the text-book. Very little experimental work is attempted. . . .³⁵

In 1919, Departmental examinations for the better pupils were eliminated in Grades VIII, IX and X. The Deputy Minister justified this move as follows:

³⁰Annual Report, etc., 1912, p. 66.

³¹Annual Report, etc., 1913, p. 97.

³²Annual Report, etc., 1914, p. 30.

³³Ibid., p. 81. ³⁴Ibid., p. 106.

³⁵Annual Report, etc., 1917, p. 50.

The elimination of the examinations for these grades will give the well-equipped and progressive teacher more freedom to broaden and enrich his teaching by having the student read and study reference books in each subject. This phase of the work is at present neglected by many teachers, as the students expend their energies in mastering the contents of the textbook, during the term, and cramming notes preparatory to the examination tests at the end of the year, and thus fail to obtain a broader view and greater appreciation of each subject through extensive reading.³⁶

Lesson material, however presented--whether formally or informally--was supposed to be as closely related to out-of-school life as possible. In Nature Study and Geography the "course demands much out-door teaching."³⁷ In Composition the teacher was to develop the sense of motive in language work by drawing "the material from experience in the whole day's work and play."³⁸ One inspector complained in 1913 that it "is not an unusual thing to find pupils studying South America or Asia who do not know the most elementary facts about our own province."⁴⁰ Another inspector complained of Civics that it was taught as a subject far removed from experience. "The text book is the pupil's as well as the teacher's guide."⁴¹ A third official related, "Pupils are found who can glibly name the rivers of Asia flowing north or east or south, who cannot tell you whither the stream flowing by their own school leads."⁴² However, in 1917, the Principal of the Camrose Normal School gave a warning

³⁶Annual Report, etc., 1919, p. 13.

³⁷Annual Report, etc., 1912, p. 111.

³⁸Ibid., p. 107. ³⁹Ibid., p. 82.

⁴⁰Annual Report, etc., 1913, p. 96.

⁴¹Annual Report, etc., 1914, p. 124.

⁴²Annual Report, etc., 1917, p. 96.

against "practicality" in mathematics when he said, "Little by little added emphasis has been laid on the practical side until we are now in danger of going too far in this direction."⁴³

Lesson material in some instances was also supposed to be related to material of other subjects. Nature Study, Geography and Agriculture were not separated one from the other until Grade V when Geography and Nature Study became separate subjects and until Grade VII when Agriculture also became separate.⁴⁴ Much preparatory work in History was to be done in stories and myths on the Reading program in Grades II, III and IV. Drawing was to be correlated in the upper grades with the manual activities of the school.

The 1918 revision of the elementary program noted the need to correlate History with Geography, Literature, Composition, Science and the Manual Arts,⁴⁵ to correlate the fine with the industrial arts,⁴⁶ to pay attention to the quality of oral and written language in all classes.⁴⁷

Lesson material, thirdly, was supposed to be built upon a good foundation. Facts and principles, learned thoroughly, gave the proper basis for future work in school and life. This principle of thorough and accurate scholarship is inseparable from the educational thought of the time. It is exemplified very well by the following comment in 1918

⁴³Ibid., p. 31.

⁴⁴In the 1918 revision the correlation of geography and nature study ceased one year earlier, i.e, in Grade IV.

⁴⁵Course of Studies for the Public Schools, Grades I-VIII, Alberta 1918, p. 50.

⁴⁶Ibid., p. 96.

⁴⁷Ibid., p. 39.

concerning the teaching of the infinitive in grammar:

Below Grade VIII there is very little profit in attempting to teach the grammar of the infinitive. Let the correct use of the infinitive forms depend on exercises in composition. Teach nothing, the need for a use of which has not been realized. Let the principle of development be that of meaning, function and relation, not that of form and structure.⁴⁸

II. AIMS FOR THE SCHOOL

Intellectual Development

The curriculum, courses of study and Departmental examinations stand as witnesses to the intellectual endeavors of the school. Of the subjects on the curriculum, particular attention was supposed to be given to those known as the academic subjects. J. T. Ross, Deputy Minister of Education, said in 1919:

Although the academic subjects hold the premier position in our school curricula, both elementary and secondary Music, Art, Commercial Work, Manual Training and Household Science are given recognition on our courses of study, and generous grants are provided to school boards. . . .⁴⁹

Within the academic subjects, a certain emphasis was supposed to prevail. John T. Ross pointed this out in a foreword to the 1918 revision of the elementary curriculum:

. . . The teacher should follow the outline of the Course of Studies consistently in each subject, but should give each pupil a thorough training in Reading, Writing, Spelling, Oral and Written Composition and Arithmetic, as these subjects form the basis of future progress in education.⁵⁰

⁴⁸Course of Studies for the Public Schools, Grades I-VIII, Alberta, 1918, p. 32.

⁴⁹Annual Report, etc., 1919, p. 10.

⁵⁰Course of Studies for the Public Schools, Grades I-VIII, Alberta, 1918, p. 3.

Mr. Ross had an opportunity in 1916 to visit various schools in Canada and the United States. He noted of a visit to Gary, Indiana, that its schools did not neglect the fundamental subjects as he outlined them later (above).⁵¹

School inspectors commented regularly upon the quality of work being done in all of the school subjects. Some of their remarks are in keeping with the sentiments of J. T. Ross. Inspector Aylesworth, in 1913, commented in this fashion:

The most common and useful branches, viz: Oral Reading, Writing, Practical Composition, particularly Letter Writing and Business Forms, rapidity and accuracy in the simple rules of Arithmetic, the spelling of words in common use, these subjects are not in the rural school taught with thoroughness and with an eye to their effective use in the out-of-school life of the boys and girls. In fact the average standard reached by rural school pupils in these things is deplorably low. Even the town schools in the grind for examination purposes, neglect to give the attention they deserve to these ordinary studies.⁵²

Inspector Morgan in 1918, while not disagreeing with the belief in certain essentials in education, thought that during the war there had been a tendency to concentrate all teaching effort on these subjects, and hoped that with the return of peace parents and teachers would "take a broader view of the educational needs of the pupils."⁵³

The above comments are related to the three R's, a body of knowledge, a grasp of general principles, powers of observation and development of ability to reason. Other Departmental comments show these

⁵¹Annual Report, etc., 1916, p. 21.

⁵²Annual Report, etc., 1913, p. 69.

⁵³Annual Report, etc., 1918, p. 49.

intellectual aims, and dwell particularly upon mental discipline. The outline of the 1912 Course of Study for Arithmetic states that in Grades IV, V and VI the "child's memory may be liberally exercised in thoroughly fixing the number combinations, the multiplication tables, and the denominate number tables."⁵⁴ In Grades VII and VIII the aim of the teaching was to be "largely the development of the power of logical analysis of problems and their systematic solution."⁵⁵ A 1912 teachers' examination in English and Canadian History asked students to explain how they would teach History in order to train "the memory, the imagination and the reasoning powers."⁵⁶ In 1914, the Chief Inspector, in speaking of physical education, stated that the time was coming when that subject would receive more adequate attention from all educators. "This," he said, "probably may involve the sacrifice of some less important subject on the curriculum that is related to purely mental training."⁵⁷

Physical Health

A second aim of the schools in this period was to help produce good health in the pupils. Physical Training and Hygiene were particularly intended to further this aim. In Physical Culture "the object of the work is to give right physical development and to correct physical defects by attention to movement and to sitting and standing positions; to counteract morbid tendencies by creating a habit of physical activity; . . .to promote grace of movement; to give muscular development; . . .and

⁵⁴Annual Report, etc., 1912, p. 82. ⁵⁵Ibid. ⁵⁶Ibid., p. 242.

⁵⁷Annual Report, etc., 1914, p. 23.

to afford relaxation from school routine."⁵⁸ In Hygiene, the general aim of the course was succinctly stated: "The right understanding and carrying out of the work in Hygiene in the common schools should be viewed by the teacher as a matter of inducing good habits rather than as a work of instruction."⁵⁹ Inspectors' reports of this period show a constant concern over school cleanliness, the water supply, and the general physical welfare of the children.

Aesthetic Development

Another aim of the schools was that of developing the pupil's love for the beautiful. The 1918 revision said of Art that it aimed to cultivate an appreciation of the beautiful in the world about us and to develop judgment and good taste by means of a study of the underlying principles of beauty, to foster accurate observation through drawing, and to develop the power of expressing ideas graphically and in a harmonious and pleasing way.⁶⁰ The same publication held that the purpose of teaching music in the public schools was primarily to awaken in the pupils an interest in good music, and to foster a love for music which would insure that it would be given in after life its rightful place in the cultural, aesthetic and emotional life of the community.⁶¹ The course outline for Design I at the second teachers' Summer School (1914) asserted that "This course is intended to give an insight into the teaching of design, the appreciation of beauty, and an understanding of fundamental

⁵⁸Annual Report, etc., 1912, p. 126.

⁵⁹Ibid., p. 133.

⁶⁰Ibid., p. 88.

⁶¹Ibid., p. 112.

principles underlying good arrangement and color harmony."⁶²

School inspectors were still hoping to see schools and school grounds beautified, as the following representative quotations will illustrate:

In a new inspectorate little can be expected in the way of beautifying school premises, almost nothing of any permanent value has been accomplished in this direction.⁶³

. . . Graduates of the Summer Schools will be able to lead the way in the matter of school gardens, school fairs, and in the general beautification of school grounds.⁶⁴

. . . It is to be regretted that trustees and even parents and teachers so often fail to realize that bright, cheerful and attractive surroundings are important factors in awakening and strengthening the aesthetic side of child nature.⁶⁵

Religious Knowledge and Development

The School Act continued to make provision for religious instruction, where desired, in the last half hour of the school day.

Vocational Preparation

Another aim of the school, one foreshadowed in the remarks in Chapter VI on Manual Training, was the development of certain physical skills and certain appreciations. The 1912 Course of Studies for Manual Training, Household Science and Arts, stated the objectives of the new courses succinctly:

⁶²Annual Report, etc., 1914, p. 58.

⁶³Annual Report, etc., 1912, p. 61.

⁶⁴Annual Report, etc., 1913, p. 56.

⁶⁵Annual Report, etc., 1914, p. 112.

The object of the work is to give a new channel for the expression of ideas; to give hand and eye training; to develop constructive impulses, judgment, accuracy, resource, patience, industry, and a sense of symmetry, proportion and beauty, by the artistic production of common things, to give respect for manual pursuits and encourage industrial efficiency.⁶⁶

The new subjects, then, had at least six aspects:

1. Intellectual, in the expression of ideas and the acquisition of knowledge;
2. Character building, in the development of personal qualities;
3. Aesthetic, in artistic work;
4. Physical, in the development of certain skills;
5. Vocational, in the sense of providing a type of basic training for post-school occupations;
6. Social, in developing respect for manual or industrial vocations.

Statements in the 1918 revision of the elementary Course of Studies, while employing different language, stressed the same aims of the new subjects. Of Manual Arts it was said:

At each stage it calls for the development in knowledge, in technique, in the control of materials and tools and in an intelligent appreciation of the social relationship of the industries in which the materials and processes are used in the industrial world.⁶⁷

The essential statement for Household Arts ran as follows:

The aim in this course is to give the pupils a broader conception of the problems underlying the work in clothing and textiles, and to encourage an appreciation and respect for the labor involved in making good articles of clothing. A certain measure of skill is also one of the aims. . . .⁶⁸

⁶⁶Annual Report, etc., 1912, p. 118.

⁶⁷Course of Studies for the Public Schools, Grades I-VIII, Alberta, 1918, p. 91.

⁶⁸Ibid., p. 95.

And of Household Science, these words were said:

The aim of the course is to teach the art of cooking, to connect the interests of the school and home, and to elevate the tasks of the home to their proper position of dignity and honor by bringing to them a trained intelligence and a systematized knowledge.⁶⁹

It is interesting to remember that in 1901 when Manual Training and allied subjects were in the first stages of development in the Territories, Dr. Goggin took space in an annual report to consider the aims of the new work. His ideas, while broader in some respects than the 1912 and 1918 statements, anticipated the later views. For instance, where the 1912 Course of Study speaks of "a new channel for the expression of ideas," Dr. Goggin asserts that the training of the sensory and motor powers is to be carried on co-ordinately with a view to clear thinking. These processes give training in the use of tools and methods and have industrial utility. "But it must be remembered that the ultimate end of all this work is sound thinking."⁷⁰

Dr. Goggin reveals two uses of hand work not mentioned directly in later statements (e.g., 1912, 1918), though these uses undoubtedly are implied in all statements concerning hand work:

Others value manual training in the public school because, in addition to making a pupil "handy", it may reveal to him his aptitudes and so indicate to him the special calling for which he is adapted. There are pupils whose special aptitudes are not revealed by literary studies, whose power to think develops through contact with things rather than words, and the good school makes provision for the development of each pupil.⁷¹

⁶⁹Ibid., p. 98.

⁷⁰Annual Report of the Department of Education of the North West Territories, 1901, p. 46.

⁷¹Ibid.

Dr. Goggin cautioned against extravagant claims made on behalf of manual training. It could train the sensory powers, but not any better than nature study or elementary geography. It could strengthen the will only in some directions, not in all directions (algebra and geometry are equally good agents in this respect, calling as they do for a high degree of concentration). It was a good moral agent, securing neatness, accuracy and truthfulness; other subjects did this, too, however. Nor is manual training of various kinds a better gymnastic than a good course in physical training. Dr. Goggin quotes approvingly a British official who said: "Nor should it be forgotten that manual and practical instruction, given in a wrong way, may become as dangerously mechanical a part of education as any of the bookish methods so justly reprobated by educational critics."⁷²

Dr. Goggin's final paragraph is worth quoting, since it seems to give the general place of hand work not only in his estimation, but also in the estimation of Departmental officials of 1912-22:

Manual training does not take the place of reading, writing, arithmetic, etc., the traditional subjects. Its wisest advocates never belittle the place of the book, nor the use of the training received through the study of the traditional branches. They point to certain ways of increasing the efficiency of that training. They suggest, not an added subject for training, but an added mode of training. They desire to see intellectual, physical and industrial training more closely and helpfully correlated with a view to giving the pupil a mastery of himself and of fitting him, as far as the school can, to take a man's place in the world.⁷³

While Dr. Goggin did not mention respect for manual or industrial occupations as one of the aims of hand work, it may be assumed that he

⁷²Ibid., p. 47.

⁷³Ibid.

would have agreed with such an aim, or else he would not have favored the introduction of manual work in the first place.

In provincial policy there was also the intention of giving some pre-vocational training to students who would not be going on to further work leading to Normal School or University. Provincial officials had in mind pupils who were over-age for the upper grades of the elementary school, or those who were about to enter high school but who were not interested in the academic courses offered there. As the Director of Technical Training said in 1913:

Their future outlook leads them into the industrial and commercial fields, the skilled trades, the home and agricultural pursuits. There is necessity for providing a course of training which will prepare them for their future work as directly and effectively as the present High School courses prepare students for the Normal Schools and for the Universities.⁷⁴

Pre-vocational classes were in operation in Edmonton and Calgary in the autumn of 1913. Lethbridge was preparing to introduce such work. It was reported of Calgary in 1913 that the classes had over eighty prospective pupils, and that courses were being arranged in sewing, household economy, printing, woodwork, and "some of the subjects of the grades."⁷⁵

Another aspect of the school's vocational intentions was to give some students direct vocational preparation. This was notably the case in the instance of commercial courses; students were being prepared to enter business life without any further training. As was also said in

⁷⁴ Annual Report, etc., 1914, p. 42.

⁷⁵ Annual Report, etc., 1913, p. 59.

1914, "In the Technical School in Edmonton, some of the day-class work, particularly that for part-time students, may be properly classified as vocational."⁷⁶

Morality, Good Character, and Social Behavior

A sixth aim was to develop moral judgment, good character and good manners. Of the teaching of history it was said in 1912,

The aim should not be so much to impart a definite amount of knowledge and to require the memorizing of facts, as, by a judicious selection and presentation of material to leave in the minds of pupils general impressions of the results of right and wrong actions, to arouse an intelligent interest in people, places and events, and to develop a genuine taste for the subject.⁷⁷

The Deputy Minister asserted in 1918 that,

We must admit that the teaching profession is not attracting a sufficient number of men and women who have reached maturity, and who have ripe scholarship, high ideals, and the power which will inspire the students with an ambition to win their own self-respect, by living up to their ideal of conduct in work and play.⁷⁸

The Hygiene course in 1912 spoke in the Grade VI section of mental and moral habits, and in Grade VIII of the effect of high purpose and determined will on the health of the body as well as on the mind and character.⁷⁹ One of the inspectors spoke of the role of the school as being that of developing character and good citizenship.⁸⁰ The Chief Inspector, in

⁷⁵Annual Report, etc., 1913, p. 59.

⁷⁶Annual Report, etc., 1914, p. 49.

⁷⁷Annual Report, etc., 1912, p. 100. The 1918 revision said of History that it should strengthen and quicken the moral sense by means of a study of the good and evil tendencies in individuals, and the results of right and wrong courses of action.

⁷⁸Annual Report, etc., 1918, p. 11.

⁷⁹Annual Report, etc., 1912, pp. 137 and 139. ⁸⁰Ibid., p. 49.

1914 said that the teacher's supervision of games at noon and recess had desirable "moral and physical effects."⁸¹ Another inspector in the same year noted that a number of his younger teachers had taken a course in military training in Calgary in July, and that during the fall term he had found these men enthusiastic teachers of physical culture and military training. They showed snap and energy in the teaching in the school-room and their pupils gave ready and cheerful obedience. "The benefits derived are both physical and moral."⁸² In 1916 an inspector said of three Edmonton teachers killed during the War, "they have given their lives in defence of the high principles of honor and righteousness--the same principles of which they were exponents in their every day work in school."⁸³ The Director of Technical Education, in commenting upon a tendency of teachers to neglect the excellent student, wrote the following:

. . . If it be our purpose to see that no child is neglected we must not forget that the child of brilliant possibilities is a much greater asset to his country and his fellow men than his less promising comrades, provided his abilities are developed and trained under the guidance of aspirations and ideals that are in harmony with the general good.⁸⁴

In 1919 the Deputy Minister asserted, "Intellectual, moral and physical development of the children in this province must be considered of . . . fundamental and primary importance."⁸⁵

The course outline in Physical Culture and Military laid particular

⁸¹Annual Report, etc., 1914, p. 24.

⁸²Ibid., p. 63.

⁸³Annual Report, etc., 1916, p. 57.

⁸⁴Annual Report, etc., 1915, p. 150.

⁸⁵Annual Report, etc., 1919, p. 14.

stress not only on physical training but upon discipline, prompt obedience and courtesy. As the introduction to the course outline for 1912 indicated:

. . . All class tactics, particularly those of entering and dismissing can be made of great disciplinary importance. Good marching, silence and steadiness should always be insisted upon. Teachers can also do a great deal in encouraging little actions of courtesy, such as raising their caps to ladies, saluting gentlemen acquaintances, closing doors, picking up articles which have fallen, etc.⁸⁶

And the 1918 Civics course had as one of its aims, "To awaken and stimulate motives that will lead to the establishment of habits of order, cleanliness, co-operation, service, and obedience to law."⁸⁷

Preparation for Home and Family Life

The "manual" subjects gave some training for the duties of the home. With respect to behavior, the school attempted to develop in students the kind of courteous, helpful obedient behavior that it felt existed in the better kinds of homes. The school attempted to show the student the importance of the family to society.

Development of Citizenship

A ninth general aim of the schools was to produce good citizens. This was put forth particularly as the aim of the courses in History, Civics, and Literature:

All school work should convince the child of the advantages of order and government. School training is essentially a training for citizenship. Class organization brings the community sense and

⁸⁶Annual Report, etc., 1912, p. 128.

⁸⁷Course of Studies for the Public Schools, Grades I-VIII, Alberta, 1918, pp. 50-51.

the administration of the school develops regard for authority. . . .History shows the development of government and tells the story of those who have struggled for or advanced national liberty. Literature idealizes the qualities that have made men great.

Civics, on the other hand, deals particularly with the duties of citizenship. It gives the special training and information that fit the boy for public and corporate duties. It is commenced formally with the study of institutions as they are found. . . [and] a study of the privileges and responsibilities of the citizen with respect to these duties. . . . [The] study of civics should develop public spirit and inspire to useful public service. . . .⁸⁸

The 1918 revision outlined the aims of Civics in this fashion:

The study of civics in the public school should give the pupils training in habits of good citizenship, as well as inform them regarding government forms and machinery.

The aims are, in general,--

To help the child realize that he is a responsible member of the social group;

To awaken and stimulate motives that will lead to the establishment of habits of order, cleanliness, co-operation, service, and obedience to law;

To emphasize the inter-dependence of the welfare of the individual and the welfare of society at large;

To acquaint the youth with the character of the institutions affecting his life;

To develop political intelligence and prepare the young citizen for its exercise.⁸⁹

Various quotations from Departmental officials support the suggestions made in the two quotations above:

From a national and patriotic viewpoint, it is especially unfortunate that Civics and Canadian History are not receiving more adequate treatment. We are engaged in the work of nation building in the truest sense, and it is just possible we are so near our

⁸⁸Ibid., p. 103.

⁸⁹Course of Studies for the Public Schools, Grades I-VIII, Alberta, 1918, pp. 50-51.

work that we fail to get its perspective.⁹⁰

A number of teachers deal only with the external functions of government, and even in the secondary grades fail to deal with the fundamental principles of liberty and law which form the basis of all government. . . .⁹¹

The subject of History is approached from the guidance side; that is, as a means of instilling in the minds of boys and girls principles which will guide them in their duties as citizens.⁹²

III. EMPHASIS AMONG AIMS

More Emphasized

1. Intellectual Development
 - The Three R's
 - A Body of Knowledge
 - A Grasp of General Principles
 - Development of Reasoning Power
 - Development of Powers of Observation
 - Mental Discipline
2. Physical Health
3. Aesthetic Development
5. Vocational Preparation
6. Morality and Good Character
7. Social Behavior
9. Development of Citizenship.

Less Emphasized

4. Religious Knowledge and Development
8. Preparation for Home and family Life

⁹⁰Annual Report, etc., 1913, p. 97.

⁹¹Annual Report, etc., 1915, p. 25.

⁹²Annual Report, etc., 1917, p. 31.

It will be noted that Vocational Preparation has in this period moved from the right to the left-hand column.

IV. WHO SHOULD BE EDUCATED?

The nine aims of the school enumerated above bear directly upon the general question, "To what ends should the child be schooled?" It is useful to note that in this period of 1912-22 there began to be evident more explicit answers to two related questions:

1. (a) Should there be provision for pupils of widely differing mental abilities?
- (b) Should there be provision for pupils of widely differing special talents and interests?
2. To what grade level should the school educate the average child?

With respect to 1 (a), Dr. Coffin of the Calgary Normal School observed the following in 1916:

A vast waste of energy and money is incurred through the attempt to carry along together, often in overcrowded rooms, work for pupils of the most varied qualifications, conditions of life and possibilities. . . . [There] is urgent need for special provision for retarded and defective children, as well as those of special talent and peculiar promise.⁹³

Dr. Coffin's opinions must have had some general currency, for in 1918 the Department of Education opened in Edmonton a Home for Mentally Defective Children. Sixteen pupils attended the school in its first year; the building had accommodation for thirty-five.⁹⁴ In 1920 the Government purchased a thousand acre farm which lay ten miles east of Edmonton

⁹³Annual Report, etc., 1916, p. 28.

⁹⁴Annual Report, etc., 1918, pp. 15-17. Deaf and dumb children of normal intelligence were sent to the School for the Deaf, Winnipeg. Blind children were educated at Brantford, Ontario. (Annual Report, 1920, p. 12).

on the north side of the Saskatchewan River. Buildings were to be erected so that provision could be made for the education of many mentally defective children. Shortly thereafter the Provincial Government changed its plans and established a Training School at Red Deer.

For question 1 (b) it has been shown that courses were officially added to the elementary school in Manual Training and Domestic Arts, and to the high school in Art, Music, Manual Training and Domestic Arts, Agriculture, and commercial subjects.

With respect to the number of years of schooling a child might receive, it should be observed that though high school education had been provided in Alberta since 1888-89 of Territorial days, the general expectation appeared to be that most students would leave school at the end of Standard V or Grade VIII. For over twenty-five years the number of students enrolled in the upper grades represented only a little more than two per cent of the general school population. In the 1912-22 period, despite educational difficulties of staffing and equipping schools, there was a strong sentiment in favor of more pupils receiving a high school education:

(1914) . . .Five years ago it was a rare thing to find a class in the rural part of the inspectorate in which there was a Grade VIII class preparing for examination. It is also encouraging to observe that a few of the rural districts are attempting a little high school work.⁹⁵

(1915) The greater interest manifested in education in the rural parts is very well illustrated by the large increase in the number of consolidated schools. People are commencing to realize that the common school education which it has been possible to give in the one-teacher rural school is not a sufficient educational equipment

⁹⁵Annual Report, etc., 1914, p. 75.

for young men and women if they are to be successful farmers, to say nothing about fitness for intelligent citizenship.⁹⁶

(1916) . . . More efficient school administration, more competent trustees, greater financial strength, a truer profession of teaching, and greater opportunity for rural youth to obtain a high school education would result from adoption of consolidated schools .⁹⁷

(1917) One of the outstanding educational problems in this inspectorate is. . . the need of providing better facilities for boys and girls in the country to obtain a High School education. . . .⁹⁸

(1919) There is a growing demand in the province for the advantages of secondary education. No longer in the older settled communities are people content to have merely an elementary education for their children. . . .⁹⁹

(1921) September, 1921, witnessed a marked increase in the number of boys and girls taking advantage of the educational facilities offered by the secondary departments of our schools. . . .¹⁰⁰

By 1921 the percentage of pupils enrolled in the high school grades had risen to 6.03 per cent of the general school population.¹⁰¹

The Department of Education made provision in the early part of the 1912-22 period for the formation of consolidated school districts; these were unions of school districts for the purpose of providing all school facilities at one central point.

In 1921, provision was made in law for rural high schools to be formed. Two or more school districts could unite for the purpose of

⁹⁶ Annual Report, etc., 1915, p. 9.

⁹⁷ Annual Report, etc., 1916, p. 74.

⁹⁸ Annual Report, etc., 1917, p. 70.

⁹⁹ Annual Report, etc., 1919, p. 69.

¹⁰⁰ Annual Report, etc., 1921, p. 14.

¹⁰¹ In 1910 it had been 3.77 per cent, in 1916, 5.3 per cent.

offering high school services at one point.

V. THE NATURE OF SOCIETY

The society of 1912-22 appears to be still primarily rural and agricultural. The Deputy Minister of Education reported in 1915 that the fluctuation in the proportions of pupils in rural and urban schools had ceased, and that the rural schools now had an advantage in numbers that they would likely hold for some years to come.¹⁰² G. Fred McNally, Principal of the Camrose Normal School, stated in 1917, "The specific task of the Normal School, then, is preparation of teachers for rural schools."¹⁰³ A previous section of this chapter has noted the extent to which the Department of Education emphasized Agriculture, and the development of school gardens.

The society of the time had at least three other characteristics worthy of mention. One is that people were quite mobile; in the eyes of the Departmental officials this justified the Department in setting minimum requirements in curriculum, and in inspecting schools to see that these requirements were being met:

There is within the Province a great deal of moving about from place to place. It is therefore desirable that requirements be fixed and a reasonable degree of uniformity be insisted upon.¹⁰⁴

A second characteristic was the number of nationalities represented

¹⁰²Annual Report, etc., 1915, pp. 13-14. In 1915 there were 51,207 rural pupils attending 2,023 ungraded schools, and 46,079 urban pupils attending 115 graded schools.

¹⁰³Annual Report, etc., 1917, p. 33.

¹⁰⁴Annual Report, etc., 1920, p. 65.

in the population. Hence the necessity for a Departmental official entitled "Supervisor of Schools among Foreigners." And in 1912 a special school called the "English School for Foreigners" was opened by the Department in Vegreville.¹⁰⁵

A third characteristic was that the province, though having a predominantly rural population, was yet developing some larger urban centers. This, in combination with the industrial growth of Canada during the war, and general advances in technology, meant that students in urban schools, particularly, would likely be preparing for vocations other than those agricultural. Hence the Department's policy in 1913 in appointing a Director of Technical Education.

In general, though, while society might be changing from rural to urban and back again, and from a primitive to a more advanced technology, school documents of this period do not reveal any awareness of basic changes in political, religious, social or economic thought. That is, society appears to be quite stable.

VI. THE FORM OF THE SCHOOL

In this period the school continues to be seen as an institution that serves social purposes.¹⁰⁶ The student was to be given an opportunity to grow in various respects in preparation for his entry into adult life and the world of work. The school, as an institution set apart, has its own special functions, form and procedures.

¹⁰⁵Annual Report, etc., 1913, p. 49.

¹⁰⁶Annual Report, etc., 1912, p. 264.

VII. THE SCHOOL AND SOCIAL CHANGE

It was noted previously that the school had assumed the task of helping to assimilate immigrants, and of providing a type of education for a society becoming increasingly technological. However, since society appeared to be basically stable in respect to political, economic and social thought, no educator of the period proposed that the school should have a role in changing the basic structure or thought of society.

VIII. EDUCATIONAL IDEAS: A LABEL

Departmental authorities do not identify the school as being any particular kind of school. Labels are not usually developed until individuals become conscious of at least two different sets of ideas, or two different kinds of schools; Departmental authorities were not prepared to assert that their kind of school was distinctly different from any other.

IX. BASIC PHILOSOPHY: A LABEL

It is not possible to discern any explicit philosophy fundamental to the educational ideas related in preceding pages. The "Goggin" type of Idealism has disappeared completely; no Departmental official states a point of view to replace this. The educational ideas are compatible with almost any philosophy or philosophical-religious view that one would likely have found in Alberta of the time. That is, the 1912-22 period appears to mark the definite beginning of a "public school" philosophy of education--a period when Departmental officials stated no basic view that might conflict with religious or philosophical views of the public

schools' supporters, but stated only educational views likely to get the support of all factions. It is interesting to note that the religious Educational Council lapsed into inactivity in 1912, though it was not legally disbanded until 1942.

X. CHANGE AND THE REASONS FOR CHANGE

In this period there were several significant changes. The first lay in the changing of "standards" to "grades"; this was done so that pupils could progress more evenly year by year through the prescribed courses of studies, and so that the classification of pupils would more accurately show where the pupils stood in the work of the school. It had long been evident that some "standards" took at least two years to complete, and this had led to many difficulties in promotions, particularly in rural schools.

The more significant change lay in the broadening of both the elementary and secondary school curricula to include some "practical" and vocational subjects. One reason for this was that some of these subjects came to be considered as a legitimate part of a good general education. This idea seems to have been derived originally from the educational views of Pestalozzi and Froebel,¹⁰⁷ and took form in the 1912-22 period in such statements as this:

The introduction of Manual Training into the schools is usually the first step in the direction of a more practical type of education for the older boys. At the same time the girls usually make a start at homemaking studies such as cookery and sewing. Instruction in

¹⁰⁷For example, the 1912 teachers' examination in Manual Training asked pupils to give the views of Pestalozzi and Froebel on the value of Manual Training.

both these as conducted in the public and high schools is not classed as technical education. Manual training and household science are considered as elements in general education.¹⁰⁸

A second reason behind the broadening was that educators, while wishing to retain the more academic type of program as a basis for professional training, also wished to see the school vary its program to meet the vocational needs of other pupils; the academic program as a whole was not held to be the best general preparation for all possible vocations. This point of view was well expressed in 1920 by J. A. Smith, a high school inspector:

. . . Our high school instruction is not as broad in scope, as continuous and intensive in the several fields of study, as flexible in administration, and as readily available to all who can profit by it, as it should be to meet the individual and social needs of our varied population. We find in our high schools the following groups of students: (1) those preparing for the University; (2) those who wish to enter the Normal Schools. . .; (3) those preparing for higher technical schools, or for positions of some responsibility in industrial establishments; (4) those seeking preparation for subordinate positions, clerkships of various kinds; (5) those who aim at directive positions in commercial or financial houses; (6) those who from the beginning feel that they are unable or do not expect to remain in school long enough to graduate, but seek such preparation as they can get while they remain for the subordinate positions they must take when the time comes for them to leave school. For these groups our courses of study should be so broad in scope, so thorough in instruction, and so accessible that any student may find in one or the other of them . . . the preparation he requires for a future career, educational or otherwise, as his ability, industry and resources permit.¹⁰⁹

XI. SUMMARY

The 1912-14 revision brought about a change in classification of

¹⁰⁸ Annual Report, etc., 1919, p. 106.

¹⁰⁹ Annual Report, etc., 1920, p. 20.

pupils from "standards" to "grades."

Three other important changes were wrought in the period. First, greater effect was given to the aim of vocational education. Previously an effort had been made in this direction through some courses in agriculture and bookkeeping. Now, there was formal adoption of Manual Training, Household Science and Household Art, a complete program for business education, and a program for technical training. The appointment of a Director of Technical Education is significant. Through the new courses and programs there was provision for skills (vocational or pre-vocational), and an appreciation of manual and industrial occupations.

Second, the high school program had other additions to it by way of courses in Music and Art. Greater effect was thus given to the aim of aesthetic development.

The third change is related to the two above. The high school was being seen by parents and educators alike as a place to which more pupils should go, and a place in which there should be greater attention to more individual talents and interests. High schools should still provide for rigorous intellectual achievement in academic subjects, but achievement in other areas is important, too.

The nature of some of the newer subjects tended to bring more informality into general teaching procedures. Lessons, though, whether formal or informal, were supposed to be as closely linked with everyday experience as possible, to show a correlation between various subjects when that was possible, and to be so well taught that each pupil had a sound foundation upon which to place future studies.

The school of this period was considered to be a special social

institution at work in a stable society; the school had no stated function with respect to social change.

For this period it is not possible to discern a particular term applicable to the educational ideas, or a basic philosophy fundamental to the educational ideas.

CHAPTER VIII

ALBERTA: DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, 1922-1936

A general revision of the curricula for all grades took place beginning in 1922. There are Departmental publications for the elementary school published in 1922, 1924 and 1929; and for the high school there is a handbook of course outlines for each of 1923, 1925, 1927 and 1930. The 1923 handbook was an interim report to the Minister of Education and the 1927 and 1930 handbooks contain minor revisions of the 1925 publication. Since 1936 marked the point at which another general revision of curricula took place, this chapter deals with the fourteen years lying between 1922 and 1936.

I. FEATURES OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Classification and Organization

The Alberta system continued to have twelve grades, organized for the most part into the elementary school, Grades I-VIII, and the high school, Grades IX-XII. A few Grade VII-IX or junior high school organizations existed (for example, in Edmonton),¹ but these combinations of Grades VII-IX were notable exceptions to general practice.

Curriculum

In the elementary school the revised program included the following

¹Since no further reference to this organization is made after 1919, it might also be assumed that the VII-IX groupings had just been a temporary expedient.

subjects (a parallel list gives the subjects of the 1918 elementary curriculum):

1922	1918
English - Reading Literature Composition Spelling Grammar (VII-VIII)	Reading Literature Composition Spelling Grammar (IV-VIII)
Arithmetic	Arithmetic
Elementary Science - Nature Study Geography (I-VIII) Physiology and Hygiene (I-VIII)	Nature Study Geography Hygiene
Writing	Writing
Citizenship - History (VII-VIII) Civics (VII-VIII)	History (VII-VIII) Civics (VII-VIII)
Music	Music
Physical Education	Physical Training
Industrial Arts (I-VI) (i.e. Art)	Art (I-VI)
Directive Courses (VII and VIII options):	
Agriculture	Agriculture
Household Economics	Household Arts
Manual Arts (VII) - for General and Language Courses	Manual Training
Manual Arts (VIII) - for General and Language Courses	
Manual Arts (VIII) - for Industrial Course	
Art - for Commercial Course (VII) - for Industrial Course - for General and Agricultural Courses	Art
French	
Commercial Subjects	Geometry (VIII)

It will be seen that significant changes in 1922 involved the addition of a formal program in French (VII and VIII) and Commercial Subjects (VII and VIII), and the deletion of Geometry (VIII). The elective principle, instituted in 1906 and implemented further in 1912, was made the basis of a formal arrangement of "courses" for pupils in Grades VII and VIII. The 1922 curriculum writers thought that a standard group of subjects² should receive eighty per cent of the school time, and that twenty per cent might be devoted to subjects classified under the following "courses":

1. General: Manual Arts or Household Economics, Agriculture, Art.
2. Agricultural: Agriculture, Art.
3. Language: Manual Arts or Household Economics, French, Art.
4. Industrial: (a) Girls - Household Economics, Art.
(b) Boys - Manual Arts, Art
5. Commercial: Commercial Subjects, Art, Household Economics, Manual Arts.³

It is worth noting that course outlines in certain electives were designed to fit certain "courses". Thus, for instance, there were separate courses of study in Art for each of the Industrial, Commercial and General "courses", and the Manual Arts program in Grade VIII had one outline for General and Language students and a second for Industrial students. The course outlines for 1924 and 1929 omitted reference to the five major

²English, Arithmetic, Geography, Citizenship, Writing, Music, Physical Education.

³Part III of the Course of Studies for the Elementary Schools of Alberta, 1922, pp. 52-53.

groupings of electives, but retained the elective subjects as given above

In the high school, a new program was authorized for Grade IX for 1923-24 and for Grade X for 1924-25. In September, 1925, the rest of the high school grades began work on their new programs.⁴ The distinguishing feature of the new arrangement was that there was provision for six routes or "courses". These were: Normal Entrance, Matriculation, Agricultural, Commercial, Technical and General.⁵ These courses were a formal recognition in detail of the Department's 1912-22 general principle of making provision for individual interests and capacities. Mr. G. Fred McNally outlined the principles established in 1922 by the Committee on High School Education:

The result of a study of these suggestions was the formulation of certain principles in accordance with which the work of revision is being done:

1. The new course must be more flexible, i.e., more readily adaptable to the varying needs of pupils living under widely different conditions and to the limitations imposed by circumstances on boards charged with the responsibility of providing these courses. This flexibility should be of three kinds:

- (a) It should meet the needs of the boy who has a bent for agriculture, or mining or commerce, as well as the one who wishes to enter a profession.
- (b) It should result in greater freedom of choice for the local authorities taking into consideration the qualifications of the teaching staff and the ability of the board to provide variety in courses.
- (c) It should provide an attractive program of study for every boy and girl with the capacity for advanced work for at least three years and so delay the choice of a vocation until the full age of sixteen years has been reached.

⁴Annual Report, etc., 1924, p. 26.

⁵Handbook for Secondary Schools, Alberta, 1925, p. 4.

- (d) The percentage of obligatory subjects should be fairly high in Grades IX and X, but should show a marked decrease in Grades XI and XII.
- (e) Local authorities with the sanction of the Department of Education should be allowed to offer optional courses in subjects of special local interest.
- (f) In addition to the elective courses referred to above, a "General Course" should be offered, where feasible. In this course the number of obligatory subjects should be reduced to a minimum in all grades, and the student be allowed to select such options as he may decide, after consultation with the principal.

2. The number of subjects to be taken concurrently is excessive. It is believed that better results would be obtained by decreasing these, and by making a more intensive study of each.

3. The Committee strongly endorses the suggestion that Provincial Departmental examinations be held every year in all subjects. It is believed that this provides the best guarantee that the desired standard is being maintained. All applicants must be admitted to these examinations, whether they have been trained in the regular day schools or not.⁶

A further recognition of the individual lay in a new provision, promotion by subject. Previously, a student had passed or failed a whole year's work. Now he could progress by subjects or "units."⁷

As the 1930 provisions for the high school "courses" reveal a student had (in theory at least) a wide choice of high school programs open to him and some degree of choice within programs. It will be noted that English, Physical Education, History, Mathematics and Science were considered paramount, and appeared in every program.

The Normal Entrance and the Matriculation courses were very much in the academic-intellectual tradition of the years 1912 to 1922. The

⁶Annual Report, etc., 1922, p. 25.

⁷Handbook for Secondary Schools, Alberta, 1925, p. 8.

General course was quite broad. Physical Education and two years of English were the only required subjects, although six of the twenty-one units for Grade XI standing had to come from the regular subjects of the third and fourth years.

Apart from some minor changes in course requirements in 1930, the courses as outlined remained in effect for the period of 1923-36.

Texts and References

The general policy of having one text for each subject taught was characteristic of the 1922 revision, as it was of former programs. In the elementary school, for instance, the Canadian Readers replaced the Alexandra Readers in 1923.⁸ New texts were introduced very gradually in order to minimize confusion, and in order to assure teachers that the Department was getting the best material available.⁹

The Department attempted to secure Canadian texts whenever possible. The 1924 Annual Report mentions that manuscripts in Geography, History, Civics, Physiology and Hygiene, and Industrial Art had been submitted to the Department by Alberta authors.¹⁰

One of the problems for those teaching the new prescribed courses was that the Department took a good deal of time to get texts for some

⁸Annual Report, etc., 1923, p. 31.

⁹Annual Report, etc., 1924, p. 27.

¹⁰Ibid. Also, Miss Dickie, and Mr. Manning of the provincial Normal School staff produced texts. Professor Sonet of the University of Alberta prepared a French reader and text. Mr. Ross Sheppard of the Edmonton Public School system collaborated on a high school geometry text, etc., etc.

subjects at all. No text had been authorized for Geography by 1925.¹¹ High School Inspector Fuller noted in 1927 that not "all the courses in all the subjects, however, have text-books to parallel them."¹² When a teacher was handling twenty-one units of high school work, the problem was serious.

Although there was a general policy of one text per subject (or one per two years of a subject as in elementary Art), the Department continued to stimulate the building of school libraries through stimulation grants and through the operation of the School Libraries and Free Readers Branch.¹³ Mr. William Noble of this Branch reported in 1923 that he had in stock at least a thousand titles in the authorized list of books for school and reference libraries. He also indicated a great demand by teachers for books in Elementary Reading, Nature Study and Agriculture, Hygiene, and Canadian History. Miss D. J. Dickie's anthology of Canadian poetry was in enormous demand.¹⁴ In Elementary Reading, it might be noted, the Course of Study for Grade III asked for silent and oral reading from the Canadian Third Reader, but it also asked for supplementary

¹¹Annual Report, etc., 1925, p. 20.

¹²Annual Report, etc., 1927, p. 27.

¹³Annual Report, etc., 1920, p. 117. This Branch had been established in 1914.

¹⁴Annual Report, etc., 1923, pp. 83-86. It should be remembered, however, that a school district received a library establishment grant of only \$15.00. After that, under certain conditions, a rural school got no more than 15 cents a day for library maintenance for four school years, and 10 cents a day thereafter. Certain other districts received 5 cents a day per classroom, and still others only 3 cents a day per classroom. (See 1920 Annual Report, etc., p. 117). In 1923 the Legislature reduced even these minor amounts, permitting schools to receive maintenance grants for six years only.

reading from at least two books out of five suggested; it listed six books for reading to children, five books with selections for reading and memorization, thirteen books with stories for telling, and four books with poems for memorization. Such lists were part of each grade's prescription.¹⁵ In the high school, single text authorizations were common, but in some history courses the list of references was extensive. In History I, for example, over thirty-five volumes are listed in the Bibliography; in History 4, there are over forty.¹⁶ The extensive reading thus suggested is laudable, but it may properly be doubted if many schools (and particularly one and two-room schools in rural Alberta) ever developed libraries of such proportions.

Courses of Study

The 1922-36 period maintained "inflation" of curriculum guides. The 1922 set of guides in elementary education total 429 pages. The high school handbook of 1925 ran to 157 pages.¹⁷ The expansion of material is partly a result of highly specific course detail (on occasion, where no text is authorized), but is more a result of the curriculum makers apparently feeling impelled to state in considerable detail not only the general aims of education,¹⁸ but the specific aims of

¹⁵Part I of the Programme of Studies for the Elementary Schools of Alberta, 1924, pp. 5-42.

¹⁶Handbook for Secondary Schools, 1925, p. 94 and p. 105.

¹⁷Compared with the 1912-22 totals of 61 pages (1912) and 15 pages (1913) respectively.

¹⁸Handbook for Secondary Schools, 1925, p. 3.

particular subjects;¹⁹ not only course content, but also methods of imparting material;²⁰ not only subjects, but the reasons for giving most importance to certain subjects;²¹ not only the grounds for teaching certain subjects, but the newer and truer grounds for teaching those same subjects.²²

Departmental Examinations

As far as can be determined, there are not available any sets of Departmental examination papers for the years 1922-36. However, the general nature of the examinations does not, in the early part of this fourteen years, appear to be different from the 1912-22 era. Course details and requirements were set out quite explicitly for most grades, and it appears that the examinations were designed to test a pupil's mastery of a relatively limited amount of material. The following extract from the Grade VIII Literature outline is suggestive of a "recall" type of examination that required organization of material but did not put much emphasis upon an individual's ability to reason independently or to interpret:

D. Minimum of Work for Grade VIII.

Pupils must be able to--

1. Give an intelligent account of or answer a group of questions upon any four of the selections from the "Introduction to Literature," and any four (including one poem) of the supplementary books listed in A.
2. Read aloud smoothly, and with intelligent expression, any four selections from the "Introduction to Literature," any two scenes from supplementary Readers, and any two scenes from general literature as listed in B.

¹⁹Ibid., pp. 110-111; pp. 92-93. (Mathematics, History.)

²⁰Ibid., p. 81. (Latin, Greek.) ²¹Ibid., p. 6.

²²Ibid., pp. 77-81. (Latin, Greek.)

3. Give an intelligent summary of the prose works studied. Describe the hero, the incident which forms the climax, and at least one scene from each. State briefly what appears to be the author's main thought.
4. State in a sentence the author's thought and suggest at least two beauties in each lyric studied.
5. Quote ten to fifteen consecutive lines from any ten selections suggested for memorization.²³

However, in 1931, the Department made experimental use of "that type of test known as the New Type examination or Objective Test in Physics 1 and History 2."²⁴ Dr. M. E. Lazerte says of these tests that the Education Society of Edmonton prepared the tests, marked the papers and analyzed the results. The society's report to the Honorable Perren Baker, Minister of Education, favored some objective type examination questions and these "have been continued ever since."²⁵

Promotion Policy

In Grades I to VII pupils were promoted by grade upon the teachers' recommendations. In Grades VIII to XII there were various arrangements concerning Departmental examinations. At first, in 1923, all of these grades except Grade IX wrote external examinations (though some Grade IX's had to write British History). Grade VIII and X pupils in certain schools could be recommended.²⁶ Various changes in examinations requirements per grade were made after this; the details need not concern us here. It is sufficient to note that by 1932 the Department had dispensed with its

²³Part I of the Programme of Studies for the Elementary School, 1924, p. 42.

²⁴Annual Report, etc., 1931, p. 20.

²⁵The ATA Magazine, No. 10, Vol. 35, June, 1955, p. 11.

²⁶Annual Report, etc., 1923, p. 33.

external examinations in Grades VIII and IX and in English 2, leaving a full set of examinations in Grades XI and XII.²⁷ In 1933 the Registrar reported results for Departmental examinations in all six "courses" (Normal Entrance, Matriculation, Commercial, Technical, Agricultural and General), there being twenty examinations in Commercial subjects, twenty-five in Technical and about forty in other subjects.²⁸ These eighty-odd examinations constitute an imposing array indeed, and are eloquent testimony to the faith of educators in the ability of the external examination to maintain "standards" and "uniformity."

The standard for promotion in Grade VIII (1924) was 50 per cent of the total number of marks and not less than 34 per cent on each paper. The faith of Departmental officials in the reliability and validity of their examinations is well illustrated by the announcement in 1922 that Alberta, which had been accepting 34 per cent per paper and a 50 per cent average in high school, would come up to the level of British Columbia, Saskatchewan and Manitoba by asking for 40 per cent and 50 per cent.²⁹ With unit promotion in 1924, however, the pass mark in any high school subject was 50 per cent.

Teaching Procedures

From programmes of study, from Normal School instructors and from

²⁷Annual Report, etc., 1932, p. 21.

²⁸Annual Report, etc., 1933, pp. 21-22.

²⁹Annual Report, etc., 1922, p. 13.

school inspectors there is much evidence of how a teacher should teach. In general, the central activities of the teacher were the individual lesson presentation (including questioning and discussion), the class assignment, and the drilling of pupils. Selected quotations show concern for the items mentioned. First of all, from the school inspectors:³⁰

I am firmly of the opinion that the Normal School graduates of 1928 were better equipped for the teaching in ungraded schools than classes of preceding years. They certainly profited from their week's practice in the rural schools. They got some idea of how to organize their classes and to provide seat exercises to keep them profitably employed. The week's experience gave them the confidence that they at least knew how to make a beginning in their own schools.

The teachers of the schools in which the students practised also received benefit from the experiment. They were stimulated to have their classes well organized, and anxious that they should make a good showing. They felt that a responsibility rested on them to give the students practical assistance, which would be of value to them in conducting their own schools.

Generally speaking, the quality of the instruction given in the different subjects is improving. The number of teachers who plan each day's work carefully has increased during the year. Their plan books are usually ready for inspection. The teachers are improving in the presentation of subject-matter and in securing responses couched in good sentences. Many teachers, especially beginners, neglect frequent reviews of new work that has been taught. This often requires principles to be retaught. Closer supervision of written exercises is being given, and the quality of the pupils' general work books is improving. The new text-book in agriculture is very helpful in the teaching of that subject. Writing is, as a rule, poorly taught. I am hopeful that a more general use of the new writing books will improve it.³¹

. . .When a well-balanced daily programme of formal class teaching and seat assignment and supervision is judiciously planned, the

³⁰There are dozens of comments by school inspectors concerning the best methods of teaching. See the Annual Reports for 1924 (pp. 62,64,65, 67), 1925 (pp. 56,58,60,61), 1926 (pp. 31,32,33), 1927 (pp. 31,33), 1928 (pp. 43,44,45), etc., etc.

³¹Annual Report, etc., 1928, p. 40.

quality of instruction is generally good. There is a growing tendency, due to a large mass of assignment material being available, to forsake the formal lesson and make the daily programme, almost wholly assignment and supervision. Such form of instruction, when in charge of an experienced teacher, well trained in standards of attainment involving certain time limits, may be productive of a researchful industrious student, but in the hands of the inexperienced much aimless and poorly correlated work is done. The time allotted is not limited to the assignment, the amount of accomplishment is insufficient, the lesson drags and the pupil becomes indolent and careless of habits. There is a limited amount of reference material in the library of a rural school, and the teacher must prepare and impart interesting knowledge for the pupil's benefit. Pupils fail to imbibe that interest that comes through active competitive participation in their lessons. Nor does this form of instruction tend to improve the teacher's efficiency. The teacher tires of the constant supervision and the numerous corrections required. Many errors are passed over uncorrected. Finally, few of the assignments are original, and the teacher employs a rather too impassive manner of carrying on. I have visited few schools where primary grades were allowed the amount of physical activity their active little bodies required. Generally, lessons taught are presented in an interesting manner and the teaching methods are good, but too often the lessons ends when the teacher feels that the knowledge bearing on the subject has been imparted. The lesson fails because the teacher does not ascertain whether the pupil has assimilated the knowledge, and whether certain important points have become fixed. Results secured in pupils and an inspection of written work often bespeak the teacher's knowledge of standards. When definite standards of attainment are available, either by way of the Course of Studies or by attainable material of a practical nature, the results are measured with a definite degree of perfection of attainment in view. Such is the case in rapid calculation, spelling, writing, hand-work and art. In the remaining subjects of the elementary school course there is a wide variation in the quality of attainment exacted by the teacher. . . .³²

. . . We have seen during the past year, more than any year yet, a tendency on the part of the beginner to rush the job, to do all the talking, to try to hurry the pupils unduly, to show impatience if there is not an immediate response, to display uneasiness if there is a lull in the proceedings. In a number of cases this spoiled the teacher's work, and gave her a lower grading than would have resulted had she held herself more in reserve, and given the pupils more opportunity to react. The experienced teachers display more moderation and better judgment; some of them are at the opposite

³²Annual Report, etc., 1929, p. 48.

pole from the type we have been describing, and are too lethargic. There is a happy medium, and many teachers have fitted themselves into it with admirable grace and skill, and they are doing work of a very high order without allowing the school to 'get them' or to do themselves injury. The great majority that we have seen during the past year belong to this class; and so, on the whole, there is very little ground for complaint regarding the quality of the teaching that is being done.³³

. . . The teachers, with very few exceptions, take a keen interest in the work of their schools. Many of them plan the lessons for each day and have their plan books ready for examination by the inspector. Most of the teachers prepare the lessons to be taught with care. Young teachers fresh from the normal schools are keen to undertake their duties with confidence and in a fairly systematic fashion. Generally, the class material is very well presented, and the questioning is, as a rule, in proper sequence. The habit of securing responses in sentence form is becoming much more prevalent. The teachers, in most cases, use the blackboards to good purpose in providing seat exercises for their classes. Many of them remain after school has been dismissed to select and put on the blackboards the exercises for the following forenoon. I regret that the otherwise good work of some teachers is marred by the abusive use of 'Teachers' Helps.' In some cases they are placed in the hands of the pupils and practically take the place of text books. A few teachers who do not prepare carefully actually use the 'helps' in questioning, and this constitutes the teaching of the lessons. I have come across a number of teachers who thought that these helps were authorized by the Department of Education. Closer supervision of the pupils' exercise books has been given during this year, and there has been in many schools a decided improvement in their written work. It is still necessary to impress the young teachers with the idea that frequent reviews are necessary. Many of them overlook this important practice during their first year's teaching, and are bound to be disappointed when they give their tests at the end of the term. . . .³⁴

The Normal School was concerned about giving prospective teachers adequate preparation in lesson planning and organization. One quotation will illustrate this:

Our efforts have been directed constantly toward causing our students to know and to follow habitually sound practice in teaching. During the year 128 demonstration lessons were given--about half by the Practice School staff. In this way each of our students made a study of 32 lessons, each of which was taught with a specific

³³Ibid., p. 41.

³⁴Ibid.

purpose. The students make extensive notes on these lessons, and they are preceded and followed by discussion under the direction of the staff member concerned. Beside exhibiting worthy models to our students and furnishing the Practice School pupils with superior types of work, these lessons have the very important effect of unifying the theory and practice of the two schools.

Our students make full use of the excellent facilities available in the Edmonton Public schools. In January they spent ten half-days observing and teaching two of the first three grades, and in February ten half-days in two of the intermediate and upper grades. Their duty is to learn thoroughly the work the grade is doing the week of their visit, to assist the teacher in any way she asks, to teach informal lessons as asked, and to teach one formal lesson each day (except Monday).

Rural practice was carried on as usual. Four classes spent the week preceding Easter and four the week following Easter in selected rural schools.³⁵

The Programme of Studies for the Elementary Schools of Alberta contained suggestions about types of lessons. In Language, Grades I-III, the teacher could use the "Conversation Lesson," "Story-telling Lesson," "Picture Study Lesson," "Poetry Lesson," and the "Dramatization Lesson," as well as "Language Games" which helped to fix right forms of speech through much repetition under the guise of play.³⁶ The grammar lesson was to be made as simple, definite and descriptive as possible through the use of six steps:

1. The collection of examples.
2. The comparison of examples.
3. The pupils draw their conclusions.
4. The teacher gives the name.
5. The pupils define the term.

³⁵Annual Report, etc., 1931, p. 31.

³⁶Programme of Studies, etc., Part I, 1924, p. 48.

6. The pupils verify (by trial) their definition.³⁷

In spelling, "rigid drill on the primary list, frequent reviews and tests, month after month and term after term will be needed to fix the ideal of perfect spelling in the minds of the children."³⁸ In Physical Education (largely regarded as calisthenics), three of the four lessons a week were to be formal lessons in which discipline and enjoyment were to be combined.³⁹

While the individual lesson was the fundamental unit of the school day, one ought not to consider this as being dry, formal, rigid and lifeless. Quite the contrary. The educators of the time wanted each lesson to be interesting, stimulating and challenging. Dr. Coffin said on one occasion:

. . . We shall have to realize and put into practice the commonplace truth that education is not a massing of facts, but a kindling of proper interests, strengthening of power to find out for oneself, together with zeal for accuracy and good finish in everything attempted.⁴⁰

One inspector wanted teachers to present work clearly and to make it interesting.⁴¹ Another considered independent thinking to be neglected.⁴² In fact, the comments of many inspectors through 1922-36 display

³⁷Programme of Studies, etc., Part I, 1922, p. 87.

³⁸Ibid., p. 97.

³⁹Programme of Studies, etc., Part III, pp. 24-25.

⁴⁰Annual Report, etc., 1923, p. 44.

⁴¹Annual Report, etc., 1929, p. 46.

⁴²Annual Report, etc., 1933, p. 43.

a genuine concern for the lesson that was first-rate in all respects.

In addition to what has been mentioned above, three points of view of previous educational periods are again present in 1922-36. These are the relation of classroom work to life, the linking or correlation of subject with subject, and the desire to have work done thoroughly to meet a good standard. Two quotations will illustrate the first point:

. . . There is too much emphasis placed upon fact learning and too little upon relating these facts to the things that pupils have already learned of in their life outside the school.⁴³

The work of this year is along the line of definite business applications of Arithmetic. The subject should be so taught as to apply to the genuine problems of life met within ordinary occupations of the community.⁴⁴

The educators of this period were aware that knowledge was divided up rather artificially for the use of the school, and that there should be some attempt made to show the relationships of one subject to others. Thus, in history for the upper elementary school, there should be some correlation of history and geography.⁴⁵ Or literature should be correlated with science, geography and history.⁴⁶

⁴³Annual Report, etc., 1933, p. 43.

⁴⁴Part II of the Course of Studies, etc., 1922, p. 23. For additional evidence concerning the linking of school work to life outside the school see the following: Part I, 1922, pp. 87 and 92; Part II, 1922, pp. 8, 23, 28-29; Part III, 1922, pp. 19, 54, 62, 91; Annual Reports, 1928, p. 43; 1931, p. 35; 1932, pp. 17 and 46; 1933, p. 43; Handbook for Secondary Schools, 1925, pp. 48, 93, 99, 111.

⁴⁵Part II, etc., 1922, p. 71

⁴⁶Annual Report, etc., 1932, p. 42. For other evidence concerning the general point under discussion, see Part I, 1922, p. 87; Part II, 1922, p. 120; Part III, 1922, p. 91; Handbook for Secondary Schools, 1925, pp. 46, 50, 152, 154.

The educators' desire for thoroughness, for "standards," and for attainment are exemplified in the following:

. . . [In writing] the key to success is "an insistent demand for the pupil's very best effort in all written work."⁴⁷

. . . The criticism. . . of the Grade IX work is not directed to the content of the course, but to the lack of preparation of too large a percentage of the students to meet the requirements of this course. The teachers handling Grade IX work are experiencing greater difficulty this year than in the past two years in laying a sound foundation in the basic work of subjects that require some initiative and some power to reason.⁴⁸

The matter of student interest and motivation has been alluded to rather indirectly to this point. Some quotations bear on this point directly:

Important: Give him interesting, stimulating topics.⁴⁹ (Composition)

Make use of games, and other devices of interest, to secure accuracy and rapidity.⁵⁰ (Arithmetic)

The course is organized around a series of problems that are of interest to the girl instead of around a core of stitches and seams in sewing and a group of processes in cooking.⁵¹ (Household Economics)

. . . With Grades VII and VIII few teachers have been able to enliven the material enough to make it interesting for the pupils; as a consequence the time has not been spent as profitably as it should be. . . .⁵² (History)

⁴⁷Part II, etc., 1922, p. 156.

⁴⁸Annual Report, etc., 1925, p. 21. For other statements concerning the general point under discussion see the following: Part I, 1922, pp. 54, 68, 93, 97; Part II, 1922, p. 24; Annual Reports, 1922, pp. 41 and 45; 1924, p. 36; Handbook for Secondary Schools, 1925, pp. 46ff.; p. 50.

⁴⁹Part I, etc., 1922, p. 66.

⁵⁰Part II, etc., 1922, p. 8.

⁵¹Part III, etc., 1922, p. 67.

⁵²Annual Report, etc., 1930, p. 54.

. . . The correlation of all subjects, the motivation of the school course are left to be acquired by the child in adult life instead of being used as a part of the educational process at school. . . .⁵³

One further quotation shows how timeless is the educator's concern with the problem of interest:

. . . Subject matter which is unrelated to pupil interests and experiences can have little educative value. There is the need for a revival of the good old principles of motivation and interest.⁵⁴ (Underlining not in the original).

II. AIMS FOR THE SCHOOL

Intellectual Development

One of the major aims for the school was that of dealing as completely as possible with the training and development of each child's mind. Such intellectual achievement involves the fundamental skills, a fund of information, a grasp of general principles, development of the ability to analyze materials in new situations (and to think logically for oneself), development of the ability to create ideas of one's own, and development of the ability to transfer training.⁵⁵

The three R's. Good achievement in Reading, Composition, Arithmetic and Handwriting and Spelling are regarded as most essential for all children. The very first sentence in Part I of the Course of Studies for the Elementary Schools of Alberta (section on Reading) says that "the

⁵³Annual Report, etc., 1932, p. 47.

⁵⁴Ibid., p. 46. For further statements concerning motivation see Annual Reports, 1922, p. 46; 1923, p. 77; Handbook for Secondary Schools, 1925, pp. 48, 49, 80; etc., etc.

⁵⁵See Section III of this chapter for some changes from the 1912-22 periods.

pupils' success in every subject he studies in school, as well as his education after he leaves school, depends on his ability to interpret the printed page accurately and quickly."⁵⁶ Part II, etc., of 1922, indicates that Arithmetic should give ". . .development of skill in the practical applications of the science of numbers."⁵⁷

Another publication notes the following:

Business men do not expect boys and girls completing only Grade VIII to have any special technical knowledge. Much more important is it that they leave school with a thorough knowledge of the principles of Arithmetic, that they be proficient in rapid figuring and spelling and that they can write quickly and legibly.⁵⁸

A high school publication of the time stated that each "High School student should be trained to develop the best command of his mother-tongue (i.e., English) possible for him."⁵⁹ Much importance was also attached to handwriting, which was to be taught each day in the elementary school. "Good penmanship is not merely an accomplishment. . . but is rather a social and business asset which is worth far more than it costs to acquire."⁶⁰

A body of knowledge. The prescribing of certain essential subjects

⁵⁶Part I, etc., 1922, p. 6.

⁵⁷Part II, etc., 1922, p. 7.

⁵⁸Part III, etc., 1922, p. 89.

⁵⁹Handbook for Secondary Schools, 1925, p. 45.

⁶⁰Part II, etc., 1922, p. 159. The fundamental skills are mentioned often in curriculum guides and in the school inspectors' annual reports. For example, see the Annual Report, etc., 1923, pp. 13 and 14; 1923, p. 44; 1925, p. 61; 1926, p. 32; 1928, p. 42; 1930, pp. 50 and 51; 1933, pp. 46 and 47; etc., etc.

which all pupils must take in elementary school and high school is the best evidence of curriculum makers' concern that each student must have a certain body of material. As one course of studies said, "Assuming that the only source of material to be included in the curriculum is the results obtained by the race in its attempt to solve its problems to this moment, it at once becomes apparent that the exact nature of any curriculum is the result of somebody's attempt to make a selection from the great body of race experience."⁶¹ And again, "It is the function of the curriculum to put children in possession of their great intellectual heritage."⁶² And, in connection with the high school program, "The new program may not be a perfect expression of such knowledge as we now possess; but it is believed to provide a more adequate instrument for the attainment of the ends of secondary education than any we have had hitherto."⁶³

Concern for the intellectual also involves principles.

A grasp of general principles. A number of quotations will serve to show educators' concern with this part of a pupil's development:

In the preceding grades certain general principles will have been fairly well fixed. For example, the geography of the world is merely an extension of the geography of the locality, into which gather and from which radiate myriad lines of communication. Exactly the same forces act in distant areas of the earth as operate in the district in which the pupil lives. . . .⁶⁴

The work in Agriculture is intended to give pupils an understanding of the fundamental principles underlying the occupation which is the basis of our wealth and our civilization, and to teach the

⁶¹Part I, etc., 1922, p. 3. ⁶²Ibid.

⁶³Handbook for Secondary Schools, 1925, p. 3.

⁶⁴Part II, etc., 1922, p. 66.

natural laws underlying the production of plant and animal crops. . . .⁶⁵

The principles and processes of mathematics are applied in the affairs of life common to most people, whatever be their vocation. . . .⁶⁶

. . . Too much time is being spent in devising exercises for the sake of exemplifying principles. The value of these principles should appear more frequently in connection with the projects upon which the students are engaged, and should find a meaning throughout the course in terms of the actual compositional activities of the students. . . .⁶⁷

. . . and the tasks required of the pupil in History should be those required in any other science. He should search for data, group them and build generalizations thereon. . . .⁶⁸

Clear thinking. Another aspect of intellectual development was that of analysing materials, thinking things through, and doing some thinking for oneself. In History the pupil should "be required to discriminate between more and less important facts, should be guided to detect and trace the operation of cause and effect in social developments, and should be led to make judgments on historical events and personages, and acquire training in the evaluation of human actions."⁶⁹

An extended quotation from the introduction to the course outline for History 3 (Canadian History, Civics and Economics) illustrates very well how students were expected to analyze materials carefully:

The course in Canadian History and Civics has been placed late in the syllabus, because it was felt desirable that any additional

⁶⁵Part III, etc., 1922, p. 54.

⁶⁶Handbook for Secondary Schools, 1925, p. 111.

⁶⁷Annual Report, etc., 1923, p. 24.

⁶⁸Handbook, etc., 1925, p. 92. ⁶⁹Ibid.

discussion of the problems of Canadian political and social development should aim to deal frankly and honestly and fearlessly with certain very specific problems of fundamental significance to our people.

It is recognized that Canadian History and current Canadian politics, fortunately or unfortunately, bristle with controversial problems, and it is hoped that the study of a stimulating period of world history and of the modern period of British history will enable the student to approach Canadian History with the background of knowledge, the breadth of view, the fairness of judgment and the qualities of imagination necessary to its effective study. The teacher should spare no pains to bring the student to a view of both sides of past controversies, so that the bases may be laid for that mutual understanding and respect which alone can smooth the path of our future national and international developments. Thus in treating the struggle between the English and the French for North America or between Britain, Canada, and the United States in 1812, the most scrupulous fairness should be shown, for on both sides in each case much can be said of praise as well as of blame, and to see the justification on both sides clearly works for the removal of prejudice and bitterness. Similarly, in treating internal affairs, the scales should be held evenly between creed and creed, between party and party, and between race and race. In dealing with the evolution of Responsible Government, students should not be left with the impression (which much teaching and many texts have in the past conveyed) that at the time all Canadians were for Responsible Government and were wholly right and that all British statesmen were stupidly and stubbornly opposed to it and wholly wrong. On the contrary, students should be shown that both Canadians and Englishmen were divided on the question, that great British statesmen like Durham, Sydenham, Elgin and Grey, were laboring as efficiently as Canadians to evolve a working system of Responsible Government and that however clear it may be to us in the light of after events that Responsible Government was wise, yet in fairness it must be admitted that one hundred years ago when circumstances and ideas were different, many were able to oppose it with arguments which then were not unreasonable. So, too, the race problem in Canada. Our history should be so taught as to give English-speaking Canadians a clear and sympathetic understanding of French-Canadians and vice versa. On such mutual understanding, and on the tolerance and co-operation which spring from it, depend the unity and prosperity of our common country.⁷⁰

For Mathematics it is noted that one of the indirect values of the subject is the "development of a scientific method of thought, such as the

⁷⁰Ibid., pp. 97-98.

careful investigation of situations and causes. . . ." ⁷¹ In Science, whereas "formerly we gave pupils a knowledge of principles, rules, formulae and laws, now we are in danger of giving them ready-made explanations of facts, thus inhibiting any tendency on their parts to discover explanations for themselves. . . ." ⁷² And again, in Science, "Faulty or inadequate concepts and consequently incorrect or careless thinking must be prevented at all costs. . . ." ⁷³ We should observe that school inspectors were concerned about good, clear thinking. Inspector C. H. Robinson said in 1929 that "Little attempt to get pupils to think things out for themselves and to take active part in class discussions is made. . . ." ⁷⁴ But Inspector J. Scoffield was encouraged in that same year to notice that more teachers were making use of methods "which encourage free and independent thinking." ⁷⁵

Development of creativity. In a number of publications of this period reference is made to the pupil's use of the imagination in creating new ideas, or in creating new combinations of old ideas. Literature should stir the creative instinct in each child. ⁷⁶ The course for Art in Grade VIII expresses the hope that work in design should lead more and more to creative effort on the part of the pupil. ⁷⁷ History, in high

⁷¹Handbook, etc., 1925, p. 111. ⁷²Ibid., p. 125. ⁷³Ibid., p. 152.

⁷⁴Annual Report, etc., 1929, p. 43.

⁷⁵Ibid. Inspector Scoffield was speaking of socialized study and problem methods as opposed to the "old formal reproduction and memorization types of method."

⁷⁶Part I, etc., 1922, p. 13. ⁷⁷Part II, etc., 1922, p. 154.

school, should expand the child's imagination.⁷⁸ And J. A. Smith of the high school inspection staff, in commenting upon newly revised Art courses, said this:

. . .It is possible to cover the Course in the time allotted, that is, to touch on all the topics outlined, but there is not sufficient time for working out original problems illustrative of the principles learned. Thus the chief value of an Art course, inspiration for artistic and original ideas, is lost in an attempt to master rules and theory. . . .⁷⁹

It is fair to state that in the 1922-36 period there was relatively little emphasis upon creativity or originality. Course outlines in so many subjects were so prescriptive and detailed that pupils would have had small scope for use of their imagination. As well, creativity seems to have been associated with certain subjects such as History, Composition, Literature and Art, and not with other subjects such as Music, Household Economics, Mathematics and Science.

Transfer of training. Transfer of training is also related to intellectual development. While courses of study speak of developing and training various mental faculties--through such subjects as music, modern languages, Mathematics--course writers of this period are at some pains to point out that transfer of training to other subjects and situations does not take place automatically; teachers must plan for and teach for such transfer of training.⁸⁰ One extended quotation gives an

⁷⁸Handbook, etc., 1925, p. 92.

⁷⁹Annual Report, etc., 1924, p. 20.

⁸⁰For example, in mathematics, science, modern and classical languages. See Handbook, etc., 1925, pp. 77ff; p. 126; pp. 111-112.

understanding of this major point:

Certain subjects have been retained on programmes of study for a very long time on the grounds that they develop general abilities. If any such assumptions can be proven, then no other reasons need be provided for making these subjects "constants." Obviously, the problem is psychological, and the only solution is an experimental study of the facts. Such experiments as have been made indicate that normally no such general training is obtained. The pupil may form habits of study and ideals of conduct, and may then generalize these, if the teacher undertakes to have such transfer effected. Where there are identical elements in method or content, such transfer will be effected more readily. The general principle may be stated thus: generalization of habits, ideals, and technique is possible, but such transfer does not take place automatically. Even though some transfer has been found in certain experiments, in every case the amount of general training was so small as to be practically negligible. Thus Neumann, who claimed to find that some general training of memory capacities results from the use of a certain specific type of material, pointed out, nevertheless, that the amount of transfer was small, and that with so much available material of direct value we simply have no time for teaching a subject which provides only or chiefly general training. Certain subjects, such as Mathematics, do provide for the formation of habits which can be generalized, but the transfer is contingent, and not inevitable. No subject of study can be admitted to, or retained in, a programme of studies primarily, or chiefly, because of its general disciplinary value. Hence, in considering the justification for the retention of such subjects as Mathematics and the Classics, we are forced to discover some more specific values for these subjects or abandon them altogether. That such specific values do exist is recognized, and it is unfortunate for these subjects that any attempt has been made to retain them on grounds which, psychologically, are largely mythical. Exactly the same statement must be made with regard to the alleged training of memory which is supposed to result from the study of history. In the first place there is no general faculty of memory to be trained; what we call memory is only a convenient term for a group of memory capacities, and it is a well-known fact that a pupil may have a good memory for historical facts, but a poor one for mathematical or chemical formulae. This in itself should have suggested that the training of memory really means the training of memories for specific types of material.

In this course, therefore, no reference will be made to such generalized and disciplinary values, excepting to indicate those branches of study which do provide the best opportunities for generalization. For example, it will be pointed out, in the introductory statement to Mathematics, that these subjects provide more opportunities than do most other branches for the formation of a scientific method of study. Whether or not a general training of

this sort will be secured will depend on the extent to which the teacher undertakes to have such transfer effected.⁸¹

Physical Health

Two ideas of previous periods related to physical health are carried on in 1922-36. There is concern about the child's health and about the surroundings in which he secures his schooling.

According to one publication of this period the child should not be required to take instruction in a badly ventilated classroom. The temperature of the room, its facilities for lighting and seating, the presence of draughts are matters of prime importance. "An instructor is criminally negligent who permits unsanitary or unhygienic conditions to exist, if it lies in any way within his power to control them."⁸²

Courses in the elementary school in Health Education and Physical Education, and a Physical Education course in high school stand as testimony to the school's interest in good health habits and the healthy bodies of pupils.

Aesthetic development. A feeling for the beautiful, according to school authorities, is to be engendered in each pupil. Again, as in earlier school programs, this training appears to be given most properly and commonly in Literature,⁸³ in Music,⁸⁴ and in Art.⁸⁵ It is also given

⁸¹Handbook, etc., 1925, pp. 6-7.

⁸²Part II, etc., 1922, p. 33.

⁸³Part I, etc., 1922, pp. 9, 10, 36, and 40; Handbook, etc., 1925, p. 33.

⁸⁴Part III, etc., 1922, p. 8. ⁸⁵Handbook, etc., 1925, pp. 8 and 22.

through special memory "gems" from Latin or Greek.⁸⁶

The introduction to Art 1 for the High School, for instance, says that Art presents things purified, leads to a true appreciation of beauty, and enriches and enlarges life experiences through its imagination.

". . .progressive people everywhere are including in their programmes of study more or less complete systems of Art education."⁸⁷

Religious Knowledge and Development

A number of clear and definite statements reveal Departmental interest in the inculcation of religion, and more specifically, the Christian religion. One of the aims of elementary school science was to have students observe the world about them "and to develop an attitude of admiration and reverence, for the Great Creator who made and ordered it all."⁸⁸

At other points in the elementary school course of studies there is reference to elements of Christianity. Citizenship asked in part for the betterment "of social, business, industrial and commercial life, by application of Christian principles and the practice of the Golden Rule."⁸⁹ Sharing in the benefits of church life is mentioned.⁹⁰ Also mentioned are the following: courtesy to clergymen; the Sunday school paper; regular attendance at Sunday School and Sunday School functions; the Christian attitude to the poor, the helpless and the sick; stories of

⁸⁶Ibid., p. 82. ⁸⁷Ibid., p. 8.

⁸⁸Part II, etc., 1922, p. 27. See also Part I, etc., 1922, p.128 for reference to "reverence."

⁸⁹Part I, etc., 1922, p. 129. ⁹⁰Ibid., p. 131.

experiences of early missionaries and establishment of church missions; and the history of progress in Canadian life in education and Christianity.⁹¹ In 1925 the School Libraries and Free Readers Branch reported that there had been a considerable demand for Bible stories and that the Branch had added eight new titles of books covering both the Old and the New Testament.⁹²

Vocational Preparation

Vocational preparation is comprised of three minor tasks: exploration of possible occupations, training in occupational skills, and respect for workers in various occupations.

The programs in both upper elementary and high school were planned so that pupils could enrol in certain subjects with a view to discovering and developing their interests and aptitudes. In the upper elementary school there were courses in Agriculture, Household Economics, Manual Arts, Art, French, and Commercial Subjects. The 1922 titles given to the patterns of "directive" or optional courses suggest exploration of vocations:

1. General
2. Agricultural
3. Language
4. Industrial
5. Commercial.

The outlines for directive courses mention that the Agricultural

⁹¹Ibid., pp. 131-147. ⁹²Annual Report, etc., 1925, p. 91.

Course is especially adapted to schools where it is desirable to stress Agriculture; that the Industrial Course is designed for boys who have a mechanical bent and are looking forward to the technical high school later, and for girls who desire to specialize in household arts; that the Commercial course is not intended to offer any extended training for commercial life but rather a sampling of the training which may be expected later in the commercial high school and that in this way students who are attracted to the field of business may test their aptitudes.⁹³

In pre-vocational and vocational schools (technical and commercial), the courses were designed to help students to enter occupations directly or to prepare them for such job training as apprenticeship.⁹⁴ The Annual Report of 1926 noted that technical education of a vocational nature was arousing more interest than formerly and that the Technical School in Edmonton, the Pre-Vocational School at Calgary and the Provincial Institute of Technology were making valuable contributions toward preparing students for industrial occupations.⁹⁵ The following brief table indicates the vocational work being done in the province in 1930, and the comments given thereafter represent Mr. W. G. Carpenter's views on technical education.

⁹³Part III, etc., 1922, pp. 52ff.

⁹⁴Handbook, etc., 1925, p. 3.

⁹⁵Annual Report, etc., 1926, p. 11.

TECHNICAL AND COMMERCIAL DAY CLASSES--JULY 1st, 1929-JUNE 30th, 1930⁹⁶

	Number of Rooms	Teachers			Students		
		Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
Edmonton S.D. No. 7:							
Technical High School	13	3	13	16	164	275	439
McDougall Commercial	11	7	4	11	310	70	380
Strathcona Commercial	4	3	1	4	129	30	159
Edmonton R.C. Separate S.D.:							
Commercial	2	2	--	2	40	9	49
Calgary S.D. No. 19:							
Technical High School	5	5	7	12	27	123	150
H.S. Manual Arts	6	--	6	6	--	130	130
H.S. Household Science	6	6	--	6	117	--	117
Commercial High School	10	5	5	10	304	67	371
Pre-vocational	6	5	5	10	117	123	240
Lethbridge S.D. No. 51:							
Commercial	3	3	--	3	83	26	109
Provincial Institute of Technology and Art, Vocational Courses							
	36	2	36	38	43	636	679
Totals	102	41	77	118	1334	1489	2823

Progress has been made during the year in the curriculum for technical schools. The Technical High School curriculum has been revised in the light of the first year's experience and the third year units have been added. The new technical program introduced into the Calgary Technical High School in the previous year worked out fairly well. The Departmental examinations were conducted with special care to insure a high standard of attainment in the practical shop subjects. The idea of making them of training value equal to the straight academic subjects was aimed at. A careful examination was made by specialists of the work done in the shop, and the drafting room, and of the shop records made by the students during the year. A practical examination of three hours' duration was given each student at the conclusion of the term, and in addition a three-hour written examination was conducted. These extra surveys were made to insure high standards of instruction and

⁹⁶Annual Report, etc., 1930, p. 87.

attainment before credits were granted. The results of the year were considered quite satisfactory as a beginning. It is planned to continue this careful scrutiny.⁹⁷

Other school districts began to add elements of vocational education. By 1932 Edson, Vegreville and Turner Valley were offering some commercial classes,⁹⁸ and by 1934 Medicine Hat, Nanton and Ponoka were doing the same. Drumheller, Cardston and Magrath were considering commercial work and Manual Arts and Household Economics.⁹⁹

It should be recognized that any school of this period, in preparing students for Normal Entrance or Matriculation, was also in a real sense a "vocational" school.

Respect for occupations of others is indicated in various places. The farmer and the housewife are two obvious examples.¹⁰⁰

Preparation for Leisure

In the general introduction to the high school course outlines, there is a series of statements about the aims and functions of secondary education. One of these statements reads as follows:

3. To prepare the student for the activities whose primary purposes are personal development and personal happiness, through the correct use of his leisure time. The secondary school can no longer deny that a part of its function is so to direct the education of the child that he may choose, intelligently and wisely, from the rapidly increasing opportunities for enjoyment, those of most value to himself and his fellow-men.¹⁰¹

⁹⁷Ibid., pp. 86-87. ⁹⁸Annual Report, etc., 1932, p. 68.

⁹⁹Annual Report, etc., 1934, p. 72.

¹⁰⁰Part III, etc., 1922, pp. 56 and 66.

¹⁰¹Handbook, etc., 1930, pp. 7 and 8.

The above is buttressed by references in other places to particular subjects which may make a special contribution to leisure activities. Thus Literature,¹⁰² Physical Education,¹⁰³ and Art¹⁰⁴ are among those subjects which are given special mention.

Morality and Good Character

There is abundant evidence that a very important function of the school is to help the child to develop sound morality and good character. A part of the general introduction to the elementary program of studies for 1922 says, "Conscious curriculum-making implies the intentional selection of material and activities which, together will result in desirable changes in behavior and the development of wholesome attitudes and ideals."¹⁰⁵ The Minister of Education, in addressing the initial meeting of the General Committee for the 1922 revision said that the new curriculum "must be made to contribute its full share to the development of character, right attitudes and good citizenship in Alberta youth."¹⁰⁶ The elementary school outline for citizenship and history (20 pages) speaks of encouraging children in the following:

1. Helpfulness
2. Sympathy
3. Loyalty

¹⁰²Part I, etc., 1922, p. 9; and Handbook, etc., 1925, p. 33.

¹⁰³Part III, etc., 1922, p. 50.

¹⁰⁴Handbook, etc., 1925, p. 8.

¹⁰⁵Part I, etc., 1922, p. 3.

¹⁰⁶Ibid., p. 4.

4. Tolerance
5. Justice
6. Fair Play
7. Reverence
8. Sacrifice
9. Punctuality
10. Cleanliness and Tidiness
11. Respectful speech and behavior
12. Co-operation
14. Self-discipline and self-control
15. Gratitude
16. Truthfulness
17. Courage
18. Obedience
19. Patience
20. Perseverance
21. Forethought in speech and action
22. Cheerfulness¹⁰⁷

A 1922 outline for kindergarten-primary work contains a section on ethical training.¹⁰⁸ Other publications speak of teaching literature for ideals and attitudes and of teaching history for its moral effects and lessons,¹⁰⁹ of spelling lessons developing judgment and character,¹¹⁰

¹⁰⁷Part I, etc., 1929, pp. 127-146. Much of this material came from the British Moral Instruction League.

¹⁰⁸Part III, etc., 1922, pp. 104ff.

¹⁰⁹Annual Report, etc., 1923, p. 24; Handbook, etc., 1925, p. 93.

¹¹⁰Part I, etc., 1922, p. 97.

and of memory gems helping to build character.¹¹¹

Social Behavior

The social adjustment of the child is to be furthered by work in school groups--in project work, school government, Red Cross groups, public speaking clubs, and in other groups which (in 1963) would be classified under the heading of extra-curricular groups. One of the aims of this kind of activity was to develop group spirit, or "Social Mind."¹¹² It might be noticed that apart from some suggested project work, and group work, and the teamwork involved in certain games and recreation periods, most of the socialization of the child is developed through his participation in classroom lessons, and through his introduction to the story of mankind in lessons in civics and history.¹¹³ This point of view is substantiated by a 1929 statement on citizenship:

. . .The course aims, through practice in group activities such as class movements and games, to assist the child to establish right relations with his fellows.¹¹⁴

Preparation for Home and Family Life

Training for family life is carried forward in various ways. One way is to have pupils analyze the pattern of family life. For Grades VII and VIII the 1922 elementary course of studies mentioned study of the patriarchal form of government in family, clan or tribe, the reasons for

¹¹¹Handbook, etc., 1925, p. 34. ¹¹²Part I, etc., 1922, p. 132.

¹¹³For some other general references to social life, see Part III, etc., 1922, pp. 27 and 45; Annual Report, etc., 1923, pp. 24-25; Annual Report, etc., 1924, p. 83; Handbook, etc., 1925, p. 3.

¹¹⁴Part I, etc., 1929, p. 127.

preference of paternal government in the family group and the classroom, and the arguments against complete self-government in the classroom.¹¹⁵ By 1929, this specific outline had been altered, but attention was still to be called to Canadian family relationships as contrasted with those of families in Arabia, India and China.¹¹⁶ And the general introduction to citizenship (history, civics, and economics) points out that unless the school can succeed in increasing the child's devotion to the family, there is little hope of securing his attachment to the broader group which he can discern but dimly as yet.¹¹⁷

The second way of training pupils for present and future family life is to offer them opportunities to gain useful information and skills in Household Economics, Manual Arts, Arithmetic, and Art. A girl, for instance, learns budgeting, cooking, and sewing.¹¹⁸

Development of Citizenship

Another of the aims of 1922-36 was the development of good citizenship. This training was to be accomplished through stories and lessons, and through the teachers' emphasis upon proper habits in the classroom and on the school grounds. An elementary school publication said this:

Education in a democracy, both within and without the school, should develop in each individual the knowledge, interests, ideals, habits and powers whereby he will find his place and use that place

¹¹⁵Part I, etc., 1922, p. 141.

¹¹⁶Part I, etc., 1929, p. 132. See also Handbook, etc., 1925, p. 127 for a statement concerning parenthood.

¹¹⁷Ibid., p. 127.

¹¹⁸For example, Part III, etc., 1922, pp. 66, 72, 78.

to shape both himself and society toward ever nobler ends. In other words, one conception of education is that it shall prepare the individual to do better those things which he is likely to have to do anyway.

In a country such as ours where the conduct of the affairs of the state is in the hands of all the people, training in the duties of citizenship could hardly be neglected. This course is built on the general assumption that adequately meeting each day's need as it arises is fulfilling all the present requirements of Citizenship and is the best preparation for meeting the needs of adult life. At every moment of his active life the child faces situations in which society demands that certain traditions and conventions in the way of speech, action and bearing be respected. Nor is society at all lenient in its judgments. It may well happen that a child with sufficient intelligence to make a real contribution to social betterment, may have his service rejected because of unprepossessing personal habits. Training is emphasized in the first three grades and specific practice demanded that approved reactions may be come habitual.¹¹⁹

A high school statement is worth noticing:

In the teaching and study of History, Civics, and Economics in High Schools two aims should be held in view. These can perhaps best be termed the informational and the developmental. These subjects, properly taught and studied, should place the student in possession of a body of knowledge of both practical and cultural value. They should also help, along with other subjects, to develop his intellect, expand his imagination, and engender worthy personal and social ideals.¹²⁰

In the upper elementary grades (VII-XII), formal history, civics and economics lessons were to give the pupil an understanding of local and national government, and of international relations. Informal historical work in Grade V was directed to the history of Western Canada, and in Grade VI directed to the main features of Saxon times, feudal times, the Crusades, the Hundred Years' War, and the early exploration of North America. Grades VII and VIII dealt formally with the histories of Britain and Canada.¹²¹ In the high school, History 1 was Ancient and Medieval

¹¹⁹Part I, etc., 1925, p. 127. ¹²⁰Handbook, etc., 1930, p. 69.

¹²¹Part I, etc., 1929, pp. 134-146.

History, History 2 the story of Britain from 1485-1930, History 3 was Canadian History, Civics and Economics, and History 4 the study of the modern world and of the British constitution.¹²² Such other courses as Geography were to aid international understanding, as well as a feeling of kinship for citizens of the British empire.¹²³ Music, it was thought, could be used to develop patriotism and loyalty to Canada. Some suggested songs were "O Canada", "The Dominion Hymn", "Brittania The Pride of the Ocean", "Rule Britannia", "The Blue Bells of Scotland", and "The Men of Harlech."

Although the office of the inspector of schools who had done special work among "foreigners" had been abolished in a government economy movement of 1923, the concern for assimilation of New Canadians remained. Inspector O. Williams reported in 1926 that in the Vegreville inspectorate the "influence of the two room school in assimilating the children of foreign parentage has been more noticeable than ever this year. . . .Experienced teachers have fastened a different outlook on life. . . ."¹²⁴

III. EMPHASIS AMONG AIMS

More Emphasized Aims

1. Intellectual Development
 - The three R's
 - A body of knowledge
 - A grasp of general principles
 - Clear thinking

Less Emphasized Aims

¹²²Handbook, etc., 1930, pp. 69-85.

¹²³Part II, etc., 1922, pp. 71 and 91.

¹²⁴Annual Report, etc., 1926, p. 48.

More Emphasized AimsLess Emphasized Aims

Development of creativity
Transfer of training

2. Physical Health
3. Aesthetic Development
4. Religious Knowledge and Development
5. Vocational Preparation
6. Preparation for Leisure
7. Morality and Good Character
8. Social Behavior
9. Training for Home and Family Life
10. Development of Citizenship

At no point in Department of Education statements for 1922-36 is there any indication of particular priority being given to one aim over another or over others. It is apparent that Departmental officials were looking for all-round development of each child. This wholeness of purpose may be seen not only from the above analysis, but may also be seen in the introductory statements for the elementary school and high school programs. Relevant portions of these two statements are given below:

It is the function of the curriculum to put children in possession of their great intellectual heritage. This can be best interpreted to the child when it is regarded as a summary of the solutions of its various problems which the race has devised up to the present moment. It must, however, do more than this. Not only must the child be made acquainted with the steps by which we have won our present position, but it must be assisted to an intelligent participation in the various activities inevitable to our present social organization. Selection of desirable experiences must be made from all the possible activities which present themselves in the everyday life of the child. Thus, many types of experience valuable in themselves must be passed by, simply because there are others more universally desirable. Conscious curriculum-making implies the intentional selection of material and activities which, together,

will result in desirable changes in behavior and the development of wholesome attitudes and ideals. Such is the point of view from which the course has been written.¹²⁵

An attempt has been made to analyze the aims and functions of secondary education. They may be indicated briefly as follows:

1. To prepare the individual for efficient participation in the duties of social, civic, political, and family life. It must provide for the adjustment of the individual student to the social ideals and standards of his time, and at the same time prepare him to take a part in the modification of these as they cease to be effective. And although it must secure this social unity and solidarity, through the development of common ideals, habits, and standards, it yet must make provision for the expression of the great individual differences, innate or acquired, in pupils. The State, having assumed charge of education, must now discharge its function by providing for the well-being and evolution of all the society which it represents.

2. To prepare the student to become an efficient economic factor. Such preparation may be complete or partial; the school may aim, as in the case of certain commercial students, to prepare adequately for entrance into the economic world; at other times the secondary school aims merely to prepare the pupil for entrance to higher vocational institutions. Due recognition must be paid again both to the differentiated capacities of the pupils, and to the differentiated needs of society. It is the function of the school to diagnose efficiencies and deficiencies, to assist in the selection of those pupils who can profit by higher education, and to organize the type of education of each pupil so that he may be prepared to enter efficiently into that work which he can best do.

3. To prepare the student for the activities whose primary purposes are personal development and personal happiness, through the correct use of his leisure time. The secondary school can no longer deny that a part of its function is so to direct the education of the child that he may choose, intelligently and wisely, from the rapidly increasing opportunities for enjoyment, those of most value to himself and his fellow-men.¹²⁶

¹²⁵ Part I, etc., 1929, p. 3.

¹²⁶ Handbook, etc., 1930, pp. 7-8.

IV. WHO SHOULD BE EDUCATED?

Section II of this chapter has dealt with what the school was supposed to do in general for each child; that is, Section II stated the kind of person the Department wanted the child to be or to start becoming. It is also worth noting quite specifically what it was that the Department felt about the kinds of pupils and the kinds of abilities and interests that schools should provide for.

First, the Department was interested in seeing that all those young people of "normal" capacity who were within proper distance of a school received an elementary and high school education of the nature indicated in Sections I and II of this chapter.¹²⁷

Second, Departmental officials generally looked with approval upon schemes for the acceleration of academically talented students.¹²⁸

Third, the Department paid grants for rooms maintained for "slow" children.¹²⁹

Fourth, pupils in isolated areas received schooling through correspondence courses. The work began in 1923.

Fifth, blind and deaf children continued to be offered elementary schooling outside of Alberta largely at Departmental expense. Sight-saving classes were offered at a few places (e.g., Calgary) and were

¹²⁷The consolidated school, the two-room rural school and the rural high school were encouraged in their development since they made it possible for more pupils to secure a high school education.

¹²⁸Annual Report, etc., 1922, p. 75; Annual Report, etc., 1931, p. 36.

¹²⁹Annual Report, etc., 1922, p. 73; Annual Report, etc., 1933, pp. 15-16, etc.

supported through regular government grants.¹³⁰

Sixth, the electives in elementary school and the six routes in high school were designed to provide for many differences in individual interests and capacities. While a core of work in English, History and Physical Education was generally maintained, the work in agriculture, technical, fine arts and commercial subjects gave some choice to the ever-increasing numbers of pupils in Grades VII to XII--at least, in those schools in which such courses could be offered.

V. THE NATURE OF SOCIETY

The general nature of society during the period covered by this chapter still is that of a political democracy, an economic system basically capitalistic in nature, and a social order in which there are obviously different classes.¹³¹

Alberta was still a province whose main industry was agriculture. The Normal Schools trained teachers for work in rural schools. In 1928, although there were 62,000 town and city school children in the province, there were 96,000 village and rural children.

Departmental officials, however, recognized that the province was part of the changing world. One writer spoke of the complexities of this kind of world and of the problems of devising a curriculum to help pupils

¹³⁰ Annual Report, etc., 1931, p. 36.

¹³¹ For reference to the proletariat, and to "classes", see Handbook, etc., 1930, p. 84.

¹³² Handbook, etc., 1930, p. 7.

to take their place in it.

The problem of the organization of a programme of studies has become one of very greatly increased difficulty within the past few decades. With the rapid increase in our knowledge of natural phenomena, with the rapid development of the means for the dissemination of such knowledge, with the increasing differentiation in training now demanded by our complex industrial system, and with a growing recognition of the nature and extent of individual capacities and interests, the arranging of a programme of studies which will give due balance to all factors is a serious undertaking. This programme may not be a perfect expression of such knowledge as we now possess; but it is believed to provide a more adequate instrument for the attainment of the ends of secondary education than any we have had hitherto.¹³²

The same 1930 publication said, in a preface to history course outlines, that we "live in a complex society." In addition, ". . .manhood and womanhood suffrage have placed ultimate political authority irrevocably in the hands of the masses of people. . . ."¹³³ The Great War of 1914 had demonstrated the need to rise above narrow nationalism:

The catastrophe of 1914, with its tragic sequel, has led thinking people to the conclusion that there can never be a common peace in the world without common ideals, and principles based on common knowledge. It is hoped that, in this course, by giving the student an opportunity to examine critically the main facts of the history of all nations for the past five hundred years, education may play its part in raising young Canadian citizens from the ideas of narrow nationalism, or even imperialism, to a higher plane of internationalism, where they will be swayed by no prejudice of race, creed, or tongue.¹³⁴

While the forces of growing knowledge, increasing industrialization and intense nationalism must be accommodated, Canadians must face the problems of race and religion in a frank and open manner. It is recognized that Canadian history and current Canadian politics bristle with such controversial problems.¹³⁵

¹³²Handbook, etc., 1930, p. 7. ¹³³Ibid., p. 70.

¹³⁴Ibid., p. 84. ¹³⁵Handbook, etc., 1925, p. 97.

In a Physical Education outline of 1929 (elementary schools), there is a feeling that modern life has become so artificial, and the restrictions of school life imposed upon the child for the sake of discipline and organization are so many, that Physical Education is essential to the pupil's success in school and in later life.

A period of economic depression early in the 1920's was followed by prosperity and then by the severe depression of the 1930's. The Chief Inspector of Schools, Mr. G. W. Gorman, indicated quite frankly in 1933 that the established political, social and economic order was no longer accepted for what it had been: ". . .thinking people are beginning to question the most fundamental truths."¹³⁶ His statement is worth quoting in part, not only because it gives evidence of the stresses of 1933, but also because it shows an optimism about education:

Under the economic and financial crises of the past few years well-established political systems have tottered. Trade channels throughout the world have been dislocated, and every country has been forced to take desperate measures to preserve its economic life and political integrity. Within the nations public and private debts have continued to mount, and distress has become so acute that thinking people are beginning to question the most fundamental truths. Four years of adversity have depleted reserves of money and clothing, and have tested the equanimity and fortitude of the stoutest hearts. The year that has passed has been, in many respects, the most difficult since the formation of the Province, and it would be idle to deny that it has taken heavy toll from the schools. True, within the four walls of the school itself industry, effort and enthusiasm have not waned. There is no depression in the class-rooms; the morale of the children has not been lowered. The anxiety and widespread pessimism throughout the adult world finds no counterpart in the class-room, where dividends in the form of well invested time and effort are as great as ever. But if educational service has been maintained unimpaired to date, which few will question, it has been at cost of great sacrifice and through measures unique and ingenious.¹³⁷

¹³⁶ Annual Report, etc., 1933, p. 32.

¹³⁷ Annual Report, etc., 1933, pp. 32-33.

VI. THE FORM OF THE SCHOOL

In the view of Departmental educators, the school was a place in which a child should grow in all respects, not only in order that he would be a happier and more useful person as a child, but in order that he would be well prepared for later life. "This course," said one writer, "is built on the general assumption that adequately meeting each day's needs as it arises is fulfilling all the present requirements of Citizenship and is the best preparation for meeting the needs of adult life."¹³⁸ While it is true that Departmental documents contain a number of references to preparing pupils for adulthood,¹³⁹ it is essential to note the school's strong emphasis upon each child's present character and citizenship if one is not to be led into the error of thinking that the only job of the school was to prepare a child for adult life.

The school, then, is a special social institution with the two general purposes delineated above. It is not society in microcosm.

VII. THE SCHOOL AND SOCIAL CHANGE

The role of the school in bringing about social change continued to be limited and conservative. The elementary program of 1922 spoke of the betterment of social, business, industrial and commercial life, by application of Christian principles and the practice of the Golden

¹³⁸Part I, etc., 1929, p. 127.

¹³⁹For example, in oral speech, teachers were to send pupils out of the public school able to speak their minds frankly, clearly and briefly. (Part I, etc., 1922, p. 84.)

Rule.¹⁴⁰ The most concise and explicit statement, however, is contained in the handbook for secondary schools. The school, says this publication, must provide for the adjustment of the individual student to the social ideals and standards of his time, and at the same time prepare him to take a part in the modification of these as they cease to be effective.¹⁴¹

VIII. EDUCATIONAL IDEAS: A LABEL

It is not possible to discern in Departmental statements of this period any one particular term or label applicable to the educational ideas of the time. In a few places curriculum writers and other Departmental officials use the word "progressive" in the sense that they saw Alberta's school system expanding and changing for the better. But in this respect, the use of the term "progressive" would be analagous to its use by any citizen of any of Alberta's recently established towns or cities. The folk-lore of the frontier community demands a belief that everything is getting to be bigger and better, and all is for the best "in the best of all possible worlds"--if not this year, then certainly next.

IX. BASIC PHILOSOPHY: A LABEL

A survey of the statements of individual and social aims reveals that Christian idealism was considered to be the point of view fundamental to the school system.

¹⁴⁰Part I, etc., 1922, p. 129.

¹⁴¹Handbook, etc., 1930, p. 7.

X. CHANGE AND THE REASONS FOR CHANGE

Significant changes in 1922-36 are the following:

1. Adoption of more electives in the public school.
2. Adoption of six formal programs or "courses" in the high school.
3. Provision for wide reading beyond the bounds of single texts.
4. Unit promotion in the high school.
5. A subtle shift from "development of reasoning power" to "clear and independent thinking."
6. The dropping of most specific allusions to development of the "powers of observation."
7. The addition of "creativity" to intellectual development.
8. A change from "mental discipline" to the concept of "transfer of training."
9. A renewed emphasis upon inculcation of a religious point of view.
10. Greater provision for vocational preparation of pupils.
11. Greater emphasis upon preparation for home and family life.
12. Concern for the education of more pupils (e.g., through the Correspondence School Branch).

Elementary school electives and the six high school "courses" were developed in order to meet varied pupil interests and capacities. Care must be taken to note that these changes concerning subjects and "courses" were simply extensions in detail of one principle adopted in the 1912-22 period, when vocational and pre-vocational education were firmly established in Alberta. The principle of electives had been established in 1885-1892.

Provision for wide reading appeared to result from two factors: First, educators had long indicated that pupils could not be properly educated within the bounds of single texts. Second, the province and local schools began to have some more revenue with which to build up suitable libraries.

Unit promotion was an acceptance in principle of individual differences in pupils and was instituted in order to give students on the various high school programs or "courses" an opportunity to take advantage of the new curriculum's flexibility.

Changes listed above as #5, and #7 appear to come from a changed attitude on the part of educators (which in turn is probably a reflection of a changed attitude in society.) In the post-war era when so many of the old accepted conventions and ideas were under attack, it was appropriate for the school to move as far as suggesting that pupils do a little "clear and independent" thinking. Statements from 1885-1922 had tended to indicate that the teacher would set the example in "reasoning power" and that his technique and his thoughts would be appropriately assumed by pupils.

As the text of this chapter has indicated, "mental discipline" as a general transferable value of certain subjects was doubted. The work of psychologists had shown that certain general effects or values of some subjects were carried over into other situations only if the teacher deliberately taught for such transfer.

There is no indication in Departmental documents as to why Christian idealism re-appeared as a basic element in each child's general education. It is possible that the general revision committees favored

explicit statements about Christianity, or that certain Departmental officials took the initiative in proposing that Christianity be given some prominence.

With respect to changes #10 to #12, one should not overlook the composition of the committees that the Department involved in policy considerations in 1922-24. These committees had representation from the following bodies:

United Farm Women of Alberta	Calgary Herald
Women's Institutes	Edmonton Bulletin
United Farmers of Alberta	Calgary Public School Board
Alberta Federation of Labor	School Inspectors, Department of Education
Alberta Education Association	Associated Boards of Trade
Alberta Trustees' Association	Women's University Club
Alberta Teachers' Alliance	University of Alberta
National Council of Education	Separate Schools of Alberta
Lethbridge Public School Board ¹⁴²	

The General Committee for the elementary school heard the Minister of Education say to them that the new course "must be flexible and easily adaptable to the needs of the children of all parts of the Province" and must be a "piece of work which will meet the demands of the public for an education which is more practical, that will appeal to educators as sound pedagogically and command the enthusiastic support of the thousands of people in this province who are interested in education."¹⁴³

¹⁴²Annual Report, etc., 1921, pp. 28-29.

¹⁴³Part I, etc., 1922, p. 4.

The Minister's reference to interest in education is particularly appropriate when one remembers the intense interest shown in high schools between 1905 and 1935. High school enrolments increased greatly in this one generation as parents realized the value of high schooling. In 1912, for instance, 3.92 per cent of all pupils in Grades I-XII were in Grades IX-XII; by 1929-30, this had tripled to 12.66 per cent.¹⁴⁴

Dr. T. C. Byrne, Chief Superintendent of Schools, in discussing large composite high schools, had this to say in 1959:

Furthermore, Alberta parents tend to regard the high school as an avenue for the movement of their children upward in society. In this drive for upward mobility, Albertans reflect in their behavior the influence of values similar to those held by middle class groups in both England and the United States. Status positions in Canadian society are reached mainly through university entrance programs. Almost every Alberta parent secretly hopes, or so it would seem, that his child will join the ranks of the professional classes. The tremendous prestige attached to the matriculation route derives from the destinations open to those who follow its highly prescriptive program.¹⁴⁵

Undoubtedly, the effects of increasing urbanization and industrialization in Alberta and Canada, coupled with Dr. Byrne's "upward mobility" do much to explain the increase in Alberta high school enrolments and the changes in high school "courses" attendant thereto. The Legislature and the Department were strongholds of the middle class.

The Minister's reference to "practical" work is appropriate also when the nature of the high school work of 1922-36 is noted--Agriculture, Business Education, Technical Education, and the statements about the three

¹⁴⁴Annual Report, etc., 1930, p. 92.

¹⁴⁵Timothy C. Byrne, "Alberta," Composite High Schools in Canada, University of Alberta Monographs in Education, No. 1, 1959.

R's, character and citizenship obviously all appeared eminently "practical" to the 1922 General Committee.

XI. SUMMARY

The Department of Education continued to be the central authority for education in Alberta. The twelve-grade system, begun in 1912, was carried on undisturbed.

In curriculum such electives as French and Commercial subjects were added for Grades VII and VIII, and six courses or routes (Normal Entrance, Matriculation, Agricultural, Technical, Commercial and General) were developed for the high school.

The policy of single texts per subject or two years of a subject was continued (i.e., when texts were prescribed), although there was a genuine attempt to indicate wide reading available for teachers and pupils. Course materials were modernized.

Courses of study were expanded greatly in order that teachers might secure more help and direction.

Examinations apparently continued to test the memorizing and organizing capacities of pupils, with a lesser role assigned to interpretation and initiative in reasoning. In 1931, the Department began to experiment with some objective type questions for several examinations.

Promotion policies continued to be based largely upon the pupil's grasp of a given portion of subject matter.

Teaching procedures were in the main lecture, lecture-discussion, questioning, reading, class study assignments, games, and drill, with some admixture of pupil presentation through oral composition. Pupil

motivation and interest were of particular concern, as were the need to relate subjects to life, to relate subject to subject, and to secure thoroughness and mastery in the work of the school.

The aims of the school were these:

1. Intellectual development
2. Physical health
3. Aesthetic development
4. Religious development
5. Vocational preparation
6. Preparation for leisure activities
7. Morality, good character
8. The ability to live and work well with others
9. Training for family life
10. Development of citizenship--local, national and international.

The Department of Education was concerned about the education, not only of the "average" child, but also of the "bright" and the "dull"; and of the deaf, and the blind. Those in isolated areas should receive schooling by correspondence.

Society was seen as stable in its fundamental social, economic and political organization, but growing rapidly in its complexity in detail.

The school's task was to develop the child at whatever age he had reached, and to thus prepare him for the adult life he would ultimately reach. The school was to help a student to accept the general aspects of the world in which he found himself, but also to prepare him to help modify his world when the need for such modification became apparent.

There is no "label" for the educational ideas of the time, but the fundamental philosophy appears to have been Christian idealism.

In this period there were a number of significant changes, all of which have been detailed in Part X of this chapter immediately preceding this summary. The changes appear to be related to the general public's awareness of the school's ability to help young people find a place in a changing and complex society.

CHAPTER IX

ALBERTA: DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, 1936-63

Since it is commonly assumed that the twenty-seven years between 1936 and 1963 constitute a single period of thought in Alberta education, these years will be surveyed within the bounds of a single chapter of this study.¹ However, the author of this study would like to assert that there are really two periods of thought within 1936-63, the first occupying the years 1936-45, and the second 1945-63. There are several major differences and many minor ones between the two periods. These differences will be noted throughout this chapter and will be set out in summary form in the final sections of this chapter.

I. FEATURES OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Classification and Organization

The 8-4 system of twelve grades that had existed in Alberta since 1912 was changed in 1936. In that year the Department of Education re-organized the twelve grades into a 6-3-3 pattern, with Grades I-VI being the elementary school, Grades VII-IX the intermediate school or junior high school, and Grades X-XII the senior high school. The twelve grades were also categorized in another way; Grades I-III, IV-VI, VII-IX and X-XII became known as Divisions I, II, III, and IV respectively.

¹See Chapter I for the discussion of the critics' view of Alberta education, 1936-63. Note that the Department of Education does not assert that any fundamental changes have taken place since 1936.

Curriculum

The curriculum for Grades I-XII underwent what appeared to be a radical change in the years between 1936 and 1939. Not only were subjects added to the curriculum, particularly in the intermediate school and the high school, but significant changes were made in the organization and prescription of subject matter. Outstanding in this latter respect was that section of knowledge which came to be known as the Social Studies.

The subject matter of the elementary school in 1936 continued to consist of familiar divisions of knowledge--Reading and Literature, Physical Education, Language and Spelling, Writing, Arithmetic, Health, Science, Art and Music. A place of new prominence was created for Speech Training, Verse Speaking and Choral Speech. History, Geography and Citizenship were combined to form a new subject called Social Studies. It is to this subject that special attention is directed, since it became central to the whole elementary school program.

The 1936 outline for Social Studies detailed a series of studies of different communities--local, national, foreign. This material could be dealt with by the teacher either as regular subject matter had been dealt with in the past, or else could be managed through a new procedure called the "enterprise."² It was expected that enterprises would also involve material from such subjects as Art, Music, Arithmetic, Physical Education and Language.

In Division I (Grades I-III) the enterprises were to be called "Social Activities"; in Division II (Grades IV-VI) they were "Social

²Programme of Studies for the Elementary School, 1936, p. 5.

Experiences."

In the 1940 and 1942 revisions of the elementary program, Elementary Science and Health were absorbed into the enterprise work in what was known as the "Integrated Programme." This program took all of the appropriate materials for Grades I-VI of History, Geography, Civics, Science and Health, and integrated them in the light of a general theme, "basic human needs."³ These basic human needs were as follows:

1. Food
2. Clothing
- 3.- Shelter
4. Work
5. Transportation and Communication
6. Recreation
7. Expression
8. Education
9. Government, Health and Protection.

The writers of the course outlines for the Integrated Program took ideas from the different subjects represented in the integration and listed these ideas under the nine themes. A part of the general organization of the program is shown on page 232. The details of Division II, Section B, Food, for example, would include an interpretation of the theme,

³The next step was supposed to be the absorption of Music, Art and Literature and a good deal of Language and Arithmetic. In a fully integrated program, said the Programme of Studies for the Elementary School, 1942, p. 28, the names of subject matter categories would disappear completely. This full integration never took place; in fact, after 1945, there were several significant moves toward the restoration of "subjects".

possible scope of the topic, suggested activities for enterprises, and a bibliography. A part of the suggested scope of Division II, Section B, Food, is as follows:

3. How mediaeval peoples improved their food supply:
 - (a) mediaeval manor (castle and village): organization for food production (field system, division of labor, types of crops and domestic animals, milling and water wheel); food preparation and customs (cooking and fireplaces, serving and dining); effect of living conditions on health (prevalence of disease--scurvy, gout, typhoid, cholera).
 - (b) Mediaeval monastery: development of experimental farming; centres of health for the community; inn, hospital, alms to the needy, etc.
 - (c) mediaeval town: growth of shops and markets, seasonal variation in food supply; water supply; waste disposal.
 - (d) relation of travel to food supply in mediaeval times: crusades, pilgrimages, trade, etc.⁴

Some of the suggested activities in this division of such a theme are these:

2. Make an animated map of the world showing routes of early explorers.
3. Make a salt and flour map showing surface features in the Nile River system.
4. Dramatization; e.g., The Waters Come (Egypt); A Feast in the Mediaeval Castle; An Inca Fair; The First Thanksgiving Dinner; Market Day in a Mediaeval Town; A Traveller Comes to the Monastery.
5. Make movie-box pictures of farming scenes in Ancient Egypt or Greece.
6. Make booklets; e.g., Life in Maya-Land; Some Early Explorers (Columbus, Magellan, Cortez, Champlain, Cartier, Vasco da Gama); Cooking Utensils of the Past.
7. Make a chart of food types found in early civilized countries.
8. Make figure drawing; e.g., The Water Carrier.⁵

The proposed outline of subject matter and activities was supposed to provide a teacher with a prepared integration of materials. The

⁴Programme of Studies for the Elementary School, 1942, p. 107.

⁵Ibid., p. 108.

Themes of Social Living			1. Food	2. Clothing	3. Shelter
Division I How We Adjust Ourselves to Our Immediate Environment To Satisfy Our Basic Human Needs	THE HOME, SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY.		How we secure and prepare our food	How we obtain suitable clothes	How we build our homes and live in them
	Section A	How Man Adapts His Living to Environmental Forces of Nature	How environment affects man's food	How man clothes himself in different climates	How environment determines the kinds of shelter used by man
	Section B	How Man Through Early Discovery and Invention Satisfied His Basic Human Needs	How man explored the food resources of the world	How man developed facilities for producing suitable clothing	How man developed improved forms of shelter
Division II How Man Adjusts Himself in More Remote Environments to Satisfy His Basic Human Needs	Section C	How Man Today Utilizes the Resources of Nature To Satisfy His Basic Human Needs	How man utilizes the food-producing resources of the world	How man utilizes the resources of the world for producing clothing	How man utilizes the resources of nature to improve his home

⁶ Ibid., p. 44.

teacher's time could then be spent in the organization of the enterprise itself. There was no prescription as to the order in which course material should be taken; a teacher and class might select enterprises which cut horizontally across the "grid" (i.e., touching upon each theme), or down the grid, or diagonally across the grid. The teacher's freedom to select curricular materials was as broad as almost any teacher could wish.⁷ However, the Department advised teachers to keep accurate records so that teachers receiving a class would know which of the basic themes the class had already dealt with in sufficient measure.

In 1947 and 1949 the Department issued a revision of the elementary school program. No subjects were added or deleted, but the "Integrated Programme" of 1942 became the "Enterprise" in 1947. Science and Health, which had been completely absorbed into the Integrated Programme, now had a dual status. Subject matter from Science and Health could be used in the various pupil enterprises, as well as being dealt with in separate fashion through activities now known as "Parallel Activities." As the following quotation illustrates, other interests could also be accommodated through parallel activities:

1. A danger exists that certain basic concepts in some of the various integrated fields may be overlooked or omitted in the effort to satisfy the interests expressed by the class. Not infrequently the child completes the elementary school with an inadequate impression of the scope and importance of Health, Nature Study, Elementary Science or Civics in modern living. Such inadequacies are due in no small part to these "blind spots", overlooked or neglected in the absence of a formalized course-of-studies statement in these areas.

⁷While subject matter was almost as broad as the world itself, the 1940 technique of dealing with this material was not. The prescribed method and the only method was the "enterprise" or "activity procedure."

2. Many sections of material are added to enterprises simply because the teacher feels that the child should have at least a passing acquaintance with the ideas involved. Much irrelevant material consequently shows up in rather unexpected spots of the unit of work. In the hands of inexperienced teachers, this "pin-the-tail-on-the-donkey" technique is often utilized to handle all Science and Health teaching. The only alternative appears to be the introduction of enterprises that are essentially Science or Health units.
3. Sections of work and centres of interest often arise during the year that do not fit smoothly into an integrated program. Some may be practices that should normally extend over a full school year, some may require close seasonal placements, some arise from unexpected environmental incidents, interrupting or intruding into desirable enterprises already under way. While the skilful teacher will always be ready to modify her program in view of such circumstances, a complete integration may be impossible.

In order to give the teacher greater flexibility in attacking these problems it is suggested that the Program of Studies encourage what are termed parallel activities. These parallel activities can be defined as classroom projects designed to complement the Enterprise outline by handling any concept from the integrated subject fields that may be considered worthwhile and desirable, yet not intimately related to the chosen unit of work. The purpose is to provide opportunity for the introduction of special interests, enrichment exercises, long-term student experiences without dictating the nature of, or interfering too markedly with, the general over-all Enterprise pattern.⁸

Teachers were given three specific directions about the use of parallel activities:

1. The parallel activity is in no sense a required or compulsory feature of the revised program. It is a recommended technique for any teacher who feels that the Enterprise organization does not give adequate coverage to certain desirable topics or practices in related fields.
2. The parallel activity technique should be used with discretion. Certainly not more than two such activities should be carried on simultaneously in any classroom. No daily or weekly time limit is suggested, but these activities should be kept in a minor role with respect to the major Enterprise program.

⁸Bulletin 2, Elementary School, 1949, p. 88.

3. The parallel activity must be kept on an "activity" basis, with due regard to the type of teaching implied thereby. It is certainly not to be misinterpreted as a segregation of Science, Nature Study and Health into separate subject fields for elementary teaching purposes.⁹

The 1947 edition of Bulletin II reveals relatively little emphasis upon Speech Training which had received much attention from 1936-1947.

In the Enterprise itself, the 1947 guide became much more prescriptive for Grades III-VI. (Grade I-II enterprises were still broadly related to the home, the family and the neighborhood.) The Department introduced a "scope and sequence" pattern in order to make the work of all schools more systematic. In place of nine themes and the integrated materials for each year for each theme, the 1947 program divided the subject matter of history, geography, civics, science and health into four areas of work for each year. Section A was mainly historical, Section B a study of contemporary people, Section C a study of geography, and Section D an appreciation of the way in which science and health knowledge have changed our ways of living. Thus, for Grade VI, the four areas and their titles were:

Section A. How Men Lived and Worked Through the Ages

Section B. How Men Live and Work in Canada Today

Section C. How We Control Global Patterns

Section D. How Science Has Affected Our Industries.¹⁰

It is highly significant to note that the nine themes of 1942 actually were still present in the enterprise work, and that these

⁹Ibid., p. 89.

¹⁰Ibid., pp. 32-33.

underlying themes of Food, Clothing, Recreation, Shelter, etc., received an addition in 1947. This was the recognition in the Enterprise of how people express their ideals through religion and art. Religion had received relatively little attention in the 1936, 1940 and 1942 editions of the elementary school program.¹¹

In 1957, Science became a separate subject in its own right again; series of science texts were authorized for Grades III-VI.

In 1959 some of the 1936-47 emphasis upon Speech Training was restored to the elementary program.¹²

In 1962, the Enterprise had a change of name. In Grades I-II, the Enterprise became the "Social Studies--Enterprise." In Grades II-VI, the Enterprise became "Social Studies" once again.¹³

By way of summary, it could be noted that the organization and prescription of subject matter in the "social studies" program had been subject to two trends. First, there was a trend to less and less prescription of subject matter. This was at its most pronounced in 1942. From 1947 on, the opposite trend was in evidence, with the Department prescribing areas of subject matter more precisely, making provision for "parallel activities," and finally creating Science as a separate subject again (though many science materials were left in with the other Social Studies components of History, Geography, Citizenship and

¹¹As will be shown later, the Departmental publications of 1936-45 are not completely clear as to the place of religion in school studies.

¹²Elementary School Language, Bulletin 2C, 1959, pp. 59-77.

¹³Program of Studies for Elementary Schools of Alberta, 1962, p. 22.

Health).¹⁴

In the junior high school or intermediate school, the significant change of 1937 was the extension of the old Grade VII-VIII program to Grade IX. As the following table illustrates, the 1937 program was not greatly different for Grades VII and VIII from what the 1934 program had been, or from what the 1962 program was to be.

1934	1937	1962
Literature	English	Literature
Composition		Language
Spelling		
Grammar		
Writing		
Arithmetic	Mathematics	Mathematics
Science	General Science	Science
Physiology and Hygiene	Health	Health
History	Social Studies	Social Studies
Civics		
Geography		
Physical Education	Physical Education	Physical Education
Music	Music	Music
Art	Art	Art
Agriculture		Agriculture
Manual Arts	General Shop	Industrial Arts
Household Economics	Home Economics	Home Economics
French		Oral French
Commercial Subjects	Farm and Home	Community Economics
Bookkeeping and Business Arithmetic	Accounting Supervised Study Library or Remedial English Dramatics Typewriting	Developmental Reading Dramatics Typewriting Guidance and Student Government

The 1937 program effected a reduction in the amount of time devoted

¹⁴Annual Reports for the late 1950's and early 1960's find superintendents of schools calling for Health as a separate subject again, too. See the Annual Report, etc., 1962, p. 24.

to English; this reduction was supposed to be offset by the special attention that each teacher would give to English, regardless of the subject that he taught.¹⁵ Social Studies represented at the junior high school the same general kind of de-compartmentalizing of subject matter has had occurred in the elementary school. Agriculture was dropped, a supervised study period per day required of all pupils, and Dramatics and Typewriting added as new optional subjects. Farm and Home Accounting was not greatly different in essence or purpose from the commercial work of the pre-1937 period. The 1937 changes, then, maintained the old basic core of subjects (even if some were re-classified as "Social Studies"), and broadened the range of electives slightly.

The Grade IX program for 1937 follows closely the pattern set out for Grades VII and VIII:

Grade IX

Compulsory Subjects:	Time Allotment (in periods per week)
English	5
Social Studies	5
Health and Physical Education	3
Mathematics	5
General Science	5
Additional Requirement:	
Supervised Study	<u>5</u>
Periods per week required	28
Optional Subjects (three to be chosen):	
Art	2-4
Dramatics	2-4
Music	2-4
Elementary Bookkeeping and Junior Business	2-4
Oral French	2-4
Typewriting	2-4
General Shop	2-4
Home Economics	<u>2-4</u>
Periods per week available for Optional Subjects	12

¹⁵"Every teacher is a teacher of "English." The reduction was also offset by the three periods a week reserved for Library or Remedial English.

DIRECTIONS

1. The Department of Education expects that in one-teacher rural schools instruction will be offered in Grades I to VIII. In these schools the Department will require that any instruction in grades above the eighth have the approval of an inspector of schools.
2. The school day comprises eight class periods, of which one must be a study period.
3. The Grade IX Programme comprises five compulsory subjects and a number of optional subjects of which any three will be sufficient to complete the Grade IX requirements.¹⁶

An examination of courses of study for the new intermediate school program reveals much less prescription of material than formerly existed in such subjects as English (Literature, Language) and Social Studies (History, Geography, Civics). In Grades VII and VIII the teacher had the authority to vary course detail widely within certain general limits; in Grade IX this same freedom was also supposed to exist, but since a Departmental examination loomed large at the end of Grade IX, the courses of study, the texts and the final examinations all gave a rigidity of prescription equal to that found in any other period of Alberta's educational history. As will be seen later, Grade IX examinations were broadly designed to test more than simple recall, but this kind of examination lessened the degree of course prescription very little since teachers simply adapted their teaching as efficiently as they could to the type of examination offered. Thus, while courses may have been broader in nature, and examinations broader in intent, Grade IX teachers had no more freedom to vary course materials than they had had in previous eras.

¹⁶Programme of Studies for the Intermediate School, etc., 1937, p. 10.

Courses in such subjects as Mathematics, Science and Health offered slightly less prescription than before. In the optional subjects (which did not culminate in a Grade IX examination), there existed the greatest degree of course variation and adaptation.

The writers of the 1937 intermediate school program stated emphatically a point of view about subject matter prescription:

1. The Alberta programme is a protest against formal methods of instruction and rigidly prescriptive instructional materials. The course outlines are suggestive, not prescriptive. Teachers may find it necessary or expedient to depart from the mode of treatment set forth in a course outline, or to re-organize the content in a different order or in units other than those appearing in the programme. Several of the course outlines contain more material than the teacher can cover in one year with an average class. Those who attempt to "teach" all of this material in extenso without regard to circumstances will find the results disappointing. Better results will come from a judicious selection of material adapted to the abilities of the class.
2. It will be seen that the time schedule provides not only for periods of class instruction, but also for library periods, periods for remedial work, and periods for supervised study. The schedule is designed to prevent the overloading of the daily programme of instruction. It allows the pupils a certain amount of free time every day, and gives to individual pupils in need of remedial instruction an opportunity to get it. It also finds a place for pupil activity as well as teacher activity.¹⁷

This statement, one is forced to add, has to be qualified by reservations noted immediately above with respect to the effect of the Grade IX examinations upon teachers' freedom.

The program revision of 1941 consisted of a re-writing of course outlines. Details were altered, but general principles of course construction and prescription were not. In 1946 the General Shop courses were revised in some detail and given the new title of "Industrial Arts." In 1947, continued attention to the problem of the poor reader resulted

¹⁷Ibid., p. 11

in the authorization of a series of reading workbooks ("Reading For Meaning") for Grades VII and VIII, with a recommendation that the series be used when necessary with Grade IX pupils.¹⁸ From 1947 to 1953 various courses of the junior high school¹⁹ underwent detailed revision, and new texts were authorized in many instances. The only new course introduced at this time was Health and Personal Development; by 1951 it had become compulsory for all junior high school students. Briefly, the course aimed to give educational, vocational and personal guidance through individual interviews and group guidance techniques. In 1954, a special section on alcohol education was added to this course.²⁰

By 1951, the program "block" had been introduced as a means of achieving better correlations of subjects taught, and a better acquaintance of the teacher with the pupils he taught. The 1952 Junior High School Handbook gives relevant information about the "block":

1. The Program Block

Definition and Objectives:--The program block is a modification of the core-curriculum idea which has been introduced in various forms in many secondary high school systems in recent years. This idea provides for a curriculum built around a basic core of combined or integrated subjects. Social Studies, English, Science, and Mathematics are the subjects which have been more commonly used to furnish a core for such a program.

A block is a large section of the daily schedule, which covers two or more subjects and is under the charge of one teacher. Such an arrangement has two main purposes. First, it enables the teacher to become better acquainted with the students he teaches, since he has fewer under his charge; and second, it provides the opportunity

¹⁸Annual Report, etc., 1947, p. 52.

¹⁹After 1949 Grades VII-IX were officially called the junior high school grades. See Annual Report, etc., 1949, p. 39.

²⁰Annual Report, etc., 1954, p. 51.

for better correlation of the subjects taught.

The block program for Alberta junior high schools is not intended as a step toward a complete core-curriculum but is a modification better suited to conditions in Alberta. It is a framework within which varying degrees of correlation may be attempted according to the inclination and capabilities of the teacher. Some teachers will correlate the subjects within the block very closely and will use other blocks in addition to those suggested in this program; others, who are less inclined to depart from their present procedures, will continue to teach the subjects separately in the manner with which they are familiar. In the latter case, the chief benefits of the block system will be that, in departmentalized schools, teachers will meet fewer pupils and therefore have an opportunity to know them better.

Types of Blocks. The major blocks designated in this program are Social Studies-Language, and Science-Mathematics. These two will constitute the essential blocks under normal circumstances. The number of blocks beyond the two basic ones, and the combinations of subjects within the blocks will be affected by such factors as the size of the school, the training and interests of the staff, and other circumstances.

The teacher responsible for a given block will endeavor to correlate the subject matter from the various subject fields whenever and wherever the learning experiences and the understanding of students can be enriched by so doing. Definite instructions for such procedures are given in the Social Studies-Language Bulletin, which has been revised to promote integration of these two subjects. Success in securing the desired results in such a program will not always come easily and will necessitate careful study and experimentation by the teacher.²¹

Continuous revision of junior high school course outlines continued to be a feature of Departmental activity from 1954 to 1963. The only significant change in subjects taught was that by 1962 the compulsory Health and Personal Development courses in Grades VI, VIII, and IX were dispensed with, and the following arrangement of courses substituted for them:

²¹Junior High School Handbook, 1952, p. 12.

Grade VII-VIII	(1960	Health and Personal Development (Compulsory)
	(	
	(1962	Health (Compulsory)
	(	Guidance and Student Government (Optional)
Grade IX	(1960	Health and Personal Development (Compulsory)
	(	
	(1962	Health (Compulsory)
	(	Guidance (Compulsory) ²²

By 1962 the Department's emphasis upon the "block" procedure in school timetabling was greatly diminished. In fact, the block is not even mentioned in the 1962 edition of the Junior High School Handbook.

By way of summary, it can be observed that the 1937 junior high school organization represented a break from the 8-4 tradition; it created a three-grade unit, or a school within a school. The general education pattern of Grades VII and VIII was extended to Grade IX, and formal high school work (and vocational choices) postponed for one year to Grade X. While adding such newer subjects as Typewriting and Dramatics, and in this way continuing to add breadth to the program, the junior high school retained the old fundamental subjects of English, History, Geography and Civics (Social Studies), Mathematics, Science, Physical Education and Health. Integration of subject matter was attempted through such devices as the Social Studies and the "block" method of organizing teachers' assignments.

In the senior high school, Grades X-XII, a new Grade X program was introduced in 1937. This was followed in 1938 and 1939 by new Grade XI and XII programs. The revised high school program showed that

²²Junior High School Handbooks of 1955 and 1962, pp. 20 and 7, respectively.

curriculum makers had dispensed with all of the program patterns of 1922-36²³ and had adopted a simpler method of prescribing three subjects as a "core", to which a pupil might add certain electives in order to get a high school diploma at the end of Grade XII. The core consisted of English in Grades X-XII, Social Studies in Grades X-XII, and Health and Physical Education in Grade X alone. For the sake of convenience, all other subjects (electives) were grouped under the heading of Academic, Commercial, Technical or General courses.

The province now issued one diploma and one only. This diploma contained within it the possibility of various individualized patterns. The high school student took those subjects which would gain him entrance to a university, or to a Normal School; or which would give him a general education along with specialized training in technical or commercial subjects; or which would give him a general education without particular entrance to business life or various professions. Thus, the principle of individual choice, begun in highly conservative fashion in Territorial days, had advanced further than ever before.²⁴

Through the 1937-39 revision, all of the following patterns (and others) were possible for high school students:

Diploma (giving matriculation).

²³For instance, Normal Entrance, Matriculation, Technical, General and Commercial.

²⁴A few electives had been offered in Territorial periods and in the early days of the province. The 1912-22 period had seen a great broadening of programs and electives; 1924 brought with it the idea of promotion by unit rather than by year. 1922-36 saw a development of five distinct programs. 1937 retained all the previous subjects, but, by wiping out the boundaries between programs, authorities gave students much flexibility in individual programming.

Diploma (giving Normal School entrance).

Diploma (with business education training).

Diploma (with technical training).

Diploma (with academic, business education and technical electives).

Diploma (giving general education).

Diploma (giving matriculation with some business education training).

Diploma (giving matriculation with some technical training).

Diploma (giving matriculation and Normal School entrance).

One could extend the list greatly, but some idea of the flexibility of the new high school program may be gained from a consideration of even this brief list alone.²⁵

The 1937-39 revision offered a few additions in subject matter. Dramatics, for example, was offered as a general option, as were Geology, Sociology and Psychology, and Vocations and Guidance. Social Studies, familiar now to pupils in Grades I-IX, was introduced into the high school and as such represented old subject matter in a different arrangement. English received less time than formerly.

After 1939 there were a number of minor changes in the high school program and diploma. A new Agriculture course was prepared in 1940.²⁶

²⁵The Grade IX standing of a student determined which subjects and which program he could take in Grade X. Low marks prevented a student from free choice of academic electives. See Programme of Studies for The High School, Bulletin 1, 1939, pp. 10ff.

²⁶It is interesting to see how educational authorities have struggled to keep Agriculture alive in an agricultural province. As the province has become more industrialized and urbanized, enrolments in Agriculture have declined. In 1934 there were 2,733 pupils enrolled in Agriculture I and

By 1946 a high school graduate had to have taken at least one science course and one mathematics course in order to get a high school diploma. In 1946 revised course outlines for most courses were issued, and from this time forward the high school program was constantly under review either for revision of subject matter, for the prescription of new texts or references or for the introduction of new subjects. For example, in 1948, four-credit technical electives were developed, and Business Fundamentals was introduced; in 1950, Health and Personal Development became a new subject, and one that shortly became compulsory for all Grade X pupils; in 1959 Ukrainian found a place on the high school program; in 1961 Health and Personal Development became an optional rather than a compulsory subject. In the early 1960's, the Department also created a new and more advanced set of biology courses, instituted a separate course in geography, and experimented with courses and texts in advanced chemistry and physics.

A 1946 Departmental statement gives a good picture of the way in which Departmental officers viewed the high school:

1. Basic Principles of the High-School Programme.
 - (a) Diversification, and adaption to individual capacities, aptitudes, interests and needs: All students take the same "core" of compulsory subjects, and supplement these with "electives" to the number of "credits" required for High-School Diploma. In theory, at least, the student is free to choose his own programme; and no mark of prestige is attached to any particular selection of subjects.
 - (b) Educational and vocational guidance for every student: Every high school is expected to provide "guidance" for every pupil, not as a "subject" but as a personal service.

II (Annual Report, etc., 1934, pp. 23-25); in 1962 there were only 1,090 registrations in Grades IX-XII (Annual Report, etc., 1962, pp. 203-204). In 1934 there were 30,253 pupils in IX,XII; and in 1962 some 71,362. Proportionately, Agriculture now has about one-sixth of the enrolment it once had.

- (c) Providing in the school and in the classroom the conditions and environment most favourable to mental, social and personal growth: of the two main purposes of the programme, one is to give ample opportunity, both on the administrative side and in classroom work, for the free play of critical intelligence on the part of students and teachers, and for mastering the techniques and practices of the democratic way of life. The other is to facilitate the development of individual personality in accordance with the Christian principles of life, through social experiences in the classroom, and social activities of the school.
- (d) Meaningful educative experience: The mere memorization and reproduction of verbalized material gives place to newer procedures of the classroom which ensure a live, meaningful experience for the students. The type and structure of Departmental Examinations have been adapted to reinforce this change from routine instruction.
- (e) Functional instruction in English as the basic tool of comprehension and expression; not as one "subject" amongst others: Every teacher is a teacher of English. The student's ability to gather meaning from print at his level of instruction and his skill and correctness in oral and written expression are the proper concern of all of his teachers; not merely of his teacher of English.²⁷

This statement is representative of the thought of 1937-39, too, except that in 1937-39 publications there did not occur such an aim as "the development of individual personality in accordance with the Christian principles of life."

The Department attempted to make some major changes in matriculation requirements in the early 1950's; these changes were to take complete effect by September of 1955, and were designed to lessen the influence of university requirements which inevitably reached down to Grade X and determined the programs of the great majority of high school students. The Department, upon the advice of the Senior High School Curriculum Committee, wished to revise the high school program so that:

²⁷Programme of Studies for the High School, Regulations, etc., 1946-47, p. 6.

- (1) more time could be devoted to the study of English language by all students;
- (2) the great majority of university-bound students would be able to matriculate after three years in high school instead of four;
- (3) within the three years, students could study two foreign languages and include both as part of their matriculation program leading to the Faculty of Arts (B.A. degree);
- (4) the students would have a somewhat wider choice of subjects and their decision to prepare for university could be more easily postponed to the beginning of Grade XI.
- (5) the quality of work could be improved in the academic electives in Grades XI and XII.

The revision accomplished this through three major changes: (1) the required number of Grade XII subjects was reduced from seven to six; (2) the average demanded for the subjects presented was raised from 50 per cent to 60 per cent; and (3) the required study of foreign languages was postponed to the beginning of Grade XI.²⁸

Reducing Grade XII to six subjects meant a reduction in the number of mathematics courses from two courses to one (Algebra). An elective course in Trigonometry was made available, however, for certain faculties. A Grade X French course was developed for pupils who had special aptitudes in language. However, these provisions did not satisfy various critics, and by 1962 a Departmental Grade XII examination was required in Trigonometry, and modern and classical languages had all been changed from two-year programs back to three. The net gain from the attempted "reforms" of 1951-55 appeared to be that a number of university faculties (University of Alberta) were satisfied with six subjects rather than seven.²⁹ In addition, until 1963, pupils received 21 credits in high school English

²⁸"Matriculation Problems," a talk to the Alberta School Trustees' Association Convention, November 2, 1954, by Mr. M. L. Watts, Director of Curriculum, Department of Education.

²⁹It is essential to remember that the changes in matriculation requirements had been arrived at in joint consultations with University of Alberta representatives.

rather than the 15 credits of the 1937-51 period. This represented a gain of 40 per cent in instruction time for English.

In 1963, the idea of one particular core of subjects for all high school students was modified. The changes from 1951-55 and 1962 are charted below:

1937 Core
(Diploma Requirements)

English 1, 2, 3	15 credits
Social Studies 1, 2, 3	15 credits
Physical education and Health	<u>3</u> credits
	33 credits

1951-54 Core
(Diploma Requirements)

Literature 10, 20.	6 credits
Language 10, 20	10 credits
English 30	5 credits
Social Studies 10, 20, 30	15 credits
One mathematics course	5 credits
One science course	5 credits
Health and Personal Development	2 credits
Physical Education	<u>2</u> credits
	50 credits

1963 Core
(Diploma Requirements)

English	15 credits
Social Studies	10 credits
Physical Education	2 credits
One mathematics course	5 credits
One science course	<u>5</u> credits
	37 credits

1963 Core
(for the Matriculant)

English	20 credits
Social Studies	15 credits
Physical Education	2 credits
One mathematics course	5 credits
One science course	<u>5</u> credits
	47 credits

As may be observed, the diploma student now has fewer minimum requirements in English and Social Studies.³⁰ At the moment of writing, the Department of Education has under consideration a proposal whereby diploma students will not write the same Grade XII English departmental examination as matriculants; this is a logical outcome of the abandonment of the one core for all pupils. (Diploma students need not take Grade XII Social Studies; hence, there is no need to develop a special Grade XII examination in this subject.) Also, vocational students may count a 15 credit vocational course in Grade XII as being the equivalent of two academic Grade XII electives.

1963 marked the year in which a number of vocational high schools opened in the province. Courses were offered at various centers in such diverse subjects as Pipe Trades, Beauty Culture, Welding, and Electronics. The vocational courses were numbered as 12, 22, 32 courses and were given 5, 15, or 20, and 15 or 20 credits respectively. In several cities the Department of Education permitted the tentative establishment of a series of courses known as the 14-24-34 series. These courses (e.g., in Automotives) were not at the trade or technology level of the 12-22-32 sequence, and hence provided for students who did not have the strong general capacities of those in the more demanding programs.³¹ Since

³⁰A Federal-Provincial agreement concerning the building of vocational schools carried in it certain stipulations about the amount of time pupils must devote to vocational training as well as to allied mathematics and science. The reduction in English and Social Studies made room for more vocational courses.

³¹The establishment of the 14-24-34 series raises this question which is yet unanswered: "How many lower-level programs can be established under the authority of one high school diploma?"

matriculation courses tend to take on the status of the university, and technical courses the status of the institutes of technology, it remains to be seen whether these general or "junior" vocational courses in the 14-24-34 sequence will be successful. Direct and satisfactory entry to employment appears to be the most suitable way of creating pupil acceptance of the new junior vocational courses.³²

It could be said of the high school in the period of 1937-63 that one basic program pattern, the "core", was in evidence until 1963. The broad range of subjects found in 1912-22 and 1922-36 was carried forward with some additions. The principles of electives and of unit promotion continued. The Social Studies introduced in 1937 changed often in subject matter detail, but remained unchanged in the general principle of integration. (Geography 20 as a separate course was intended to reinforce the Social Studies, not to point the way to the breaking up of the integrated materials.) The significant fact to observe about the high school, 1937-63, was that it tried in various ways to accommodate a wider range of students' abilities and interests. Seven direct indications of this are:

1. The core and elective pattern of 1937.
2. The matriculation requirement changes of 1951-55.
3. The changed diploma requirements of 1963 (adjusting to the Federal-Provincial programs for vocational students).
4. The addition of such new subjects as Psychology, Sociology,

³²This opinion is the one heard most often in the discussions of the Senior High School Curriculum Committee.

Dramatics, Ukrainian, Health and Personal Development, Vocations; and the whole range of vocational courses of 1963.

5. The development of "tougher" courses in biology, chemistry and physics (starting about 1959-60).
6. The provision of mathematics and science courses for at least two levels of academic ability.³³
7. The provision (1963) of half-year courses in such subjects as Music, Art, Dramatics, Physical Education, Vocations and Literature.³⁴

A number of changes in Departmental regulations prior to 1956 gave greater scope for individual student programming, as well as greater opportunity for the exercise of local administrative initiative and control. A listing of these regulations complements the above seven points which are related to subjects and programs, and helps us to understand trends in Departmental thinking. The list follows:

- (a) The general grade categories were removed from the Grade IX diploma in 1951 and the regulations restricting the courses students could take in Grade X were removed in 1951. Student placement in Grade X is now handled by the principal.
- (b) The attendance requirement of 160 days, governing the awarding of credits in Grades X, XI and XII, was eliminated in 1953. Local school systems now have their own attendance requirements governing promotion and non-promotion.
- (c) The regulation requiring that a student must not register in a program carrying a credit value of more than 35 was modified in

³³The 1922-36 period had had provision for different levels, too, in General Mathematics and Science courses.

³⁴Number 7 is a detail that was not mentioned in previous pages of this study. The half-year courses give more flexibility to school and student programming.

1948 to permit a credit load of 37 or 38 in exceptional cases and was finally removed in 1951 so that where a principal deems it advisable a student may carry a full program of 40 credits.

- (d) To ease the problem of timetabling and to enable the principal to take full advantage of specially qualified teachers a number of subjects have been given a variable credit rating.
- (e) The defining of credits in terms of the number of instruction periods per week was abolished in 1952 and re-stated in minutes per week in the hope that principals would depart from the rigid timetable consisting of eight periods a day, each of thirty-five minutes in length. Principals who wish may schedule their classes in longer periods or in combinations of short and long periods.
- (f) Special regulations were drawn up to assist the principal of the small high school in the scheduling of his program. The chief of these set forth a table of minimum instruction time per subject and permitted the cycling of certain courses.³⁵

A point not mentioned thus far in any comments about the high school is that in 1961 the amount of instruction time per five-credit subject was increased from one hundred and seventy-five to two hundred minutes a week. This increase was meant to help improve the amount and quality of work in all high school subjects.³⁶

Texts and References

In the 1936-63 period the traditions and trends of other years were carried forward.

An Alberta tradition had been that of prescribing a textbook for each of most of the courses on the total program, with least prescription

³⁵Annual Report, etc., 1956, p. 50.

³⁶It is fair to point out that this change, made basically upon the recommendation of The Royal Commission on Education In Alberta, can never be evaluated. No provision has been made to check the standards of 1960 high school pupils with those of 1965, for example, to see if improved work has resulted from increased time per subject.

in the elementary school and most in the high school. Such was the case in 1936-63. In the elementary school, in 1936, there were texts for reading and arithmetic; suggested lists of pupil references for literature, health, science, spelling, music, and the enterprise; and suggested lists of teacher references in elementary science, health, speech training, handwriting, physical education, art, music, the enterprise, and reading.

By 1942 a set of language texts had been authorized for Grades IV-VI (Junior Language, Books A, B and C). In 1947, a new series of language texts was chosen for Grades IV-VI. By that same year there were special language workbooks authorized for Grades II-III, and a set of five texts were prescribed for music. By 1949, two series of spellers were introduced into the schools as texts, and not just as general reference. In 1957, series of science texts were prescribed for Grades III-VI of the elementary school. Thus, while the period of 1936-63 began with texts prescribed for two subjects, there were six prescriptions by 1963. These added prescriptions parallel the greater degree of subject matter prescription that existed after 1945; both trends reflect the nature of the more conservative forces at work in the Department after 1945.

In the intermediate school (junior high school) all of the major subjects (except Art) have regularly had texts prescribed for them. Dramatics, Industrial Arts, and Agriculture have tended to exist without texts or pupil workbooks, but Community Economics, Music, Home Economics, Oral French and Typewriting have usually had texts, workbooks, or major references which have been used as texts.

The high school has traditionally had one text or workbook per

subject, compulsory and elective subjects alike. This custom was strongly reinforced in the 12-22-32 vocational subjects of 1963; these courses, unlike many of those in Industrial Arts, have a clear-cut sequence of materials elaborated in definite texts or workbooks.

A general comparison of texts and references for 1922-36 and 1936-63 shows that the two periods are about equal in text prescriptions. However, in 1936-63, there is much more evidence of Departmental concern with wide reading by both pupils and teachers. While this fact is true of subjects such as science and music, it is particularly true of literature and social studies.

The simplest and most dramatic way of illustrating the truth of the above assertion is to quote the experience of the Camrose Normal School staff when it experimented with the "activity" or "enterprise" method in 1935. Mr. George Haverstock, principal of the school, observed the following in the 1935 Annual Report of the Department of Education (p. 34):

Several other considerations of a general nature call for comment:

- (a) Experience demonstrated the difficulty of providing the necessary material--reading and illustrative--to keep the activity moving along smoothly. To do this taxed the energies of the two experienced people co-operating in the management of each enterprise. In part, this difficulty was due, not so much to the lack of material as it was to the lack of suitable material. Where it became necessary to provide material for the pupils to read for themselves, it soon became evident that such was not available, even in a school with as extensive library facilities as a Normal School. The information is available but not in a form children can use. It must first be translated into language used by junior grades. This suggests the urgent need of many texts prepared expressly for children's reading. How the ill-equipped rural school will cope with this problem is a question which must seriously concern those responsible for putting the plan into operation. Equipment of this type is essential for success and many of the texts have still to be

written. In the case of the experiment in Camrose, the services of a trained librarian were available.

- (b) The need for more equipment of various kinds for carrying out the various activities must be considered. Much may be accomplished by the resourceful teacher, but the best class room artist will require generous help from boards of trustees. The question of space for the activities programme must also be faced. Proper equipment and working space seem essential to entire success.³⁷

Another difficulty that teachers encountered--at all grade levels--was the general lack of relationship between a text and a course outline. In many cases, the authorized text was not really a text, but simply a general reference book suitable only for parts of a course. Teachers and classes were expected to secure the rest of their material from many different sources.

Courses of Study

Course outlines continued to expand in volume. Publications for Grades I-XII totalled more than one thousand pages in 1946. Between 1936 and 1963, the Department of Education published the following numbers of booklets (most of them course outlines or collections of course outlines):

Elementary School	30 publications (approximately)
Junior High School	90 publications (approximately)
Senior High School	180 publications (approximately)

³⁷Opinions of this kind did not deter Departmental officials. They shortly compelled all elementary schools in the province to follow the enterprise method.

³⁸The great majority of the publications were issued beginning in 1946. The count is taken from a card index for the Department of Education archives. Other publications, such as the thirty odd bulletins for high school social studies, are not included in the card index. Nor are any of the annual reports of the Department of Education.

The chief reasons for the expansion of Departmental documents seem to be five. First, the Department wished to give a point of view which purported to be different from any existing in the past. The best example is the section in the 1942 Programme of Studies for the Elementary School. Sixty-one pages are devoted to discussing the nature of the "Integrated Programme" and the reasons for its institution in this province. Second, course materials are given in great detail. The 1942 Programme again furnishes us with an example; about one hundred pages of this publication give the suggested materials of the Integrated Program. Third, a "newer" teaching procedure is outlined extensively. The 1958 edition of the Junior High School Curriculum Guide for Social Studies-Language has ninety-eight pages of exposition describing how teachers may use Social Studies as a vehicle for the teaching of Language. Four, Departmental interest was extended to the publishing of guides about old problems (e.g., the 1959 Curriculum Guide for the Teaching of Educable Mentally Handicapped Children), and to service publications (e.g., the 1962 Reading Handbook). And lastly, guides were revised in order to provide subject matter that was up to date.

In summary, the expansion of publications seems to stem from a Departmental desire to convince teachers of the rightness of new ideas, and to direct them in great detail in the direction of those ideas.

In 1961, Departmental curriculum committees supported a change in policy respecting courses of study. After 1961 syllabi or programs of study were to list subject content and teaching materials. Curriculum guides were to be service publications offering suggestions with respect to possible teaching procedures.

Departmental Examinations

In the 1937-39 period all but two sets of Departmental examinations were abolished from the Alberta school system. A set of examinations was retained for the major subjects of Grade IX, and another set for the matriculation subjects of Grade XII. In all other subjects of Grades IX-XII the pupils were promoted upon the teachers' recommendations. Thus, pupils were examined formally only upon leaving the intermediate school and the high school.

Department of Education officials felt that the examinations of the past had been subject to two faults: they had tested pupils too narrowly upon a limited amount of subject matter, and the results of the examinations had been treated very haphazardly as far as statistical procedures were concerned. The following quotations serve to show the first of these points of view:

Tests and Examinations

There can be no doubt that faulty techniques of testing and examining are in a large measure responsible for the aridity of school courses and the barrenness of their results. Naturally the type of examination determines the type of teaching procedure. The prevailing type of examination puts a premium on the reproduction of memorized subject-matter. It does not test for the realization of professed objectives. As stated in the Programme of Studies for the Elementary School, the pupil's learning should eventuate in the following desirable outcomes: knowledge, with insight and understanding; habits; skills; interests and appreciations; attitudes; and ideals. It is the business of examiners to test for these outcomes.

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The Department of Education will conduct annually a Grade IX Examination. This examination together with Grade VIII Promotion Tests will be in charge of the High School Entrance Examination Board. The purposes of the Grade IX Examination are the following:

1. To serve as a general check-up of a pupil's intermediate school achievement.
2. To test a pupil's mastery of language skills, his power to manipulate some of the fundamental concepts of mathematics,

- and his grasp of general ideas in science and social studies.
3. To furnish data respecting his mental capacity and special aptitudes, to be used for educational guidance.
 4. To provide a basis for promotion to the High School.

The following general remarks may be added respecting the character of the Grade IX Examination:

1. To a considerable extent, it will be of the "objective" type. The constituent question papers will be prepared by a committee of test and subject-matter specialists.
 2. The valuing and grading of the answer papers will be done under instructions from the Board. Statistical techniques will be employed, and other precautions will be taken to keep the examinations on a scientific basis.
 3. It will be the endeavour of the Board to make the examination of such a character that it will defeat "cramming," and offer no encouragement to teaching that is aimed directly at examination results. In other words, the examination will require the adjustment of teaching procedures to the objectives of the programme.
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- (b) The tests in English and Mathematics, and, if necessary, in either or both of the remaining subjects, will consist of two parts, which may or may not be given at one sitting. In each case, however, the parts will be taken together for the purpose of scoring.
 - (c) One part of the test in English will cover Literature and Reading, and the other will cover Language (Oral and Written English, and Spelling). The former will test the candidate's ability to comprehend and appreciate what he reads, and to express his appreciation in acceptable form. It will not necessarily be based on the prescribed reading, but may make use of "sight" selections.
The latter will be a test on language usage, and on the practical application of the more important principles of sentence and paragraph structure.³⁹

Since Departmental examinations have always produced a well-marked effect on classroom teaching and procedures, the recent changes in the style and tenor of these examinations should improve materially the prevailing quality of classroom instruction in English, Social Studies, Science, Mathematics and Foreign Languages. What these examinations aim to test is not the student's ability to reproduce memorized or specially prepared material, but to apply principles in new situations, and to think independently--in other words, democratically. In the same way, the General and Survey Tests required

³⁹Programme of Studies for the Intermediate School, 1937, pp. 12-14.

of students seeking admission to the Normal Schools are designed to measure the candidates' mental maturity, and mastery of fundamental principles.⁴⁰

A cursory examination of some of the Departmental examination papers during 1937-63 indicates that the examiners asked pupils to do the following:

1. Recall materials (e.g., in Science, Social Studies, English).
2. Apply facts and principles learned (e.g., in Science, Social Studies, Mathematics, English, French).
3. Organize information on a specific topic in paragraph or essay form (e.g., Biology, Social Studies).
4. Give a personal point of view (e.g., Social Studies, English).
5. Analyze, explain and interpret new materials (e.g., Social Studies, English).
6. Analyze, explain, and interpret standard course materials (e.g., Science, Social Studies).
7. Define terms (English, Mathematics, Social Studies, Science).

The examiners' purposes were achieved through short questions, "objective" questions, and essays or paragraphs. For the first part of the period 1937-63, the objective type of question received more emphasis than it did for the latter part. Also, while papers in the mathematics and the sciences tended over the years to stress questions in accordance with #1, #2 and #7 above, Language, Literature and Social Studies have had all types of questions and have balanced facts and principles, the prosaic and the imaginative, the short answer, the narrow

⁴⁰ Annual Report, etc., 1940, p. 18.

sectional question and the broad topical one, the known material and the sight selection.

With respect to the statistical procedures by which final examination results were handled, the Department instituted a change with the new Grade IX and XII examinations of 1937-39. Previously, examiners had set a paper and after it had been marked the Department had to decide how many pupils in each subject should pass that subject. If a particular examination had been "too easy", some pupils lost marks; if the examination had been "too hard", some pupils were given a bonus in order to make the examination system seem reasonable. The new system, involving competition just as severe as that found in the old, at least had the virtues of being more systematic and more logical. A 1958 statement gives the reasons for the new system and states a good example of the current procedures used:

In awarding marks to pupils in grades nine and twelve the Department does not refer to any absolute standard. The reasons for this are simply that no such standard exists and that it would be impossible to devise one that a majority would accept.

The grading of the pupils is based on the assumption that in a LARGE group the students from year to year are about the same in ability and achievement; that is to say, from one year to the next there is the same percentage of average, of dull and of bright pupils. It would follow that the same proportion of pupils should receive high marks each year and that the percentage of failures should not vary. The actual proportion of pupils in each category was set several years ago, and except for occasional minor changes, is used from year to year and applies to almost all of the subjects. The actual scales used in grades nine and twelve follow:

GRADE IX

<u>Letter gradings given to pupils</u>	<u>Percentage marks used to derive letter gradings</u>	<u>Percentage of total number of pupils</u>
H	80-100	10
A	65- 79	25

<u>Letter gradings given to pupils</u>	<u>Percentage marks used to derive letter gradings</u>	<u>Percentage of total number of pupils</u>
B	50- 64	35
C	40- 49	20
D	0 -39	10

The above gradings apply to the individual subjects only. Many students who were awarded a "Pass" general standing received one or two "H" subject gradings. Only about five percent of the students have averages high enough to be awarded "Honours" diplomas.

GRADE XII

<u>Percentage gradings given to pupils</u>	<u>Percentage of total number of pupils</u>
80-100	5
65- 79	20
50- 64	35
40- 49	25
0- 39	15

The following example taken from the 1957 examination records might help one to understand how the above scales are used:

In the Social Studies 30 (grade 12) final examination the total number of marks possible was 200. The highest and lowest totals received by pupils were 187 and 27 respectively. The top 5% of the group received totals from 150 to 187, so those with 150 were awarded 80% and the pupil (there was only one) with 187 received 100%. The 20% of the pupils whose totals ranged from 125-149 received marks between 65% and 79%, while those with totals from 97 to 124 (35% of the whole group) received percentages from 30 to 64. At the lower end of the scale, totals from 74 to 96 (representing 25% of all the pupils) resulted in percentages from 40 to 49 and the lower 15% of the class, whose totals ranged from 74 all the way down to 27, received marks from 39% to 14%. (It is not uncommon for the lowest percentage grade to be 0, though a mark of 14 isn't much more comforting.)

A similar method is used for calculating grade nine marks; however, in the final stage instead of actually sending the pupils the percentage grades, these are changed to letter gradings which are then forwarded to the students.⁴¹

⁴¹"Curriculum News Letter," February, 1958, #9, pp. 6-7. The system described is often called the "normal curve" system. Its one major defect is that the system does not have any quality control studies accompanying it; it is therefore rather difficult to say that standards in a particular subject are either rising or falling. (The old system of "examiner standards", of course, had no quality controls, either.)

Promotion Policy

As the previous section has pointed out, graduation from the intermediate school or the high school depended mainly upon final examinations in the major (and academic) subjects in Grades IX and XII. In all other grades, promotion depended, and still depends, upon the judgment of the teacher.

In Grades I-IX, all promotions after 1936 continued to be promotions by the year; a pupil passed or failed his whole year. In Grades X-XII, the unit promotion system just established in 1924 continued to be used. 1936, however, brought with it some views about the nature of the learning process and the aims of the school that the Department considered new. Because of these views, some modifications took place in suggested promotion policies.

From Departmental publications of 1935-42 it is rather difficult to determine exactly what it was that the Department wanted teachers to do about promotions. There are a number of ideas stated explicitly, but these seem to clash with other ideas.

A 1937 and a 1942 quotation will establish what appeared to be some Departmental views about promotion policy:

The programme recognizes the fact of individual differences, and draws from this fact the inference that the individual child's progress, either as a whole or with respect to any "subject," activity, skill or function, cannot be measured by the length of time in school. . . . Those who cannot reach the "normal." "average" or "standard" are not to be regarded as "failures," and care must be taken to see that they are not treated as "casualties." They are simply children whose rate of progress is different. Nothing has done more to wreck the personality of many children than the school's futile attempt to enforce "standatds."

. . . For promotion from Division I to Division II, or from Division II to the Intermediate School, the main determining factor

will be social maturity. In the majority of cases, pupils will earn promotion by the natural process of growing a year older. . . .

In this connection, teachers will observe that the new form of Report on Progress, noted above, makes no mention of "grades," "tests," "examinations," "marks," "passing" or "promotion." This traditional jargon is one of the obstacles barring the way to better education for Alberta children.⁴²

2. The teaching procedures, methods of discipline, and administrative control in the intermediate school must be adapted to the peculiar mental, emotional and physical needs of adolescent pupils. The teachers should be experts in the psychology of adolescence. Teaching procedures should also be adjusted to differences in mentality, special aptitudes, personality and physique. Dull pupils do not profit from sustained instruction. They require short and simple units of work, with an obvious goal always in evidence. Attention should also be given to special aptitudes, and to differences in personality and physique. Sound methods of diagnosis should be employed, leading to appropriate remedial measures, and educational or vocational guidance. Promotion within the intermediate school should be more or less casual, determined less by rigid requirements than by the special needs of the pupils concerned. Promotion tests and examinations should be internal.⁴³

One has considerable difficulty in applying these views about "social maturity," "traditional jargon" and "casual promotion" to the school system of the time, and to other statements in Departmental publications. There were, for example, the Grade IX and Grade XII Departmental examinations in which the social maturity of pupils was not a factor considered by those who marked examination papers for content and for skills. Also, since teachers had to prepare pupils for these examinations, and were under all of the community pressures that were and are still associated with "final exams," they could not very well be blind to

⁴²Programme of Studies for the Elementary School, 1942, pp. 26-27.

⁴³Programme of Studies for the Intermediate School, 1937, p. 8.
(Underlining not in the original.)

grades, tests, examinations, marks, or "passing." They were forced to take part in the "school's futile attempt to enforce 'standards.'" Again, if children who did not reach the "normal" or "average" were not supposed to be regarded as failures or "casualties," what about the casualties inflicted by the Department at the Grade IX and XII levels? Finally, was a school supposed to let all of the "failures" occur at the two special examination points?⁴⁴

The elementary school Programme of Studies could speak at one point rather bitterly about "standards," but in other parts of the same publication it is made clear to teachers that there were certain standards that pupils should reach in reading, language and arithmetic--to mention only a few areas.⁴⁵ Indeed, in 1943, the Department published a special twenty page brochure entitled Supplementary Bulletin on the Programme of Studies for the Elementary School with Directions to Teachers and Statement of Minimum Essentials. Two quotations from pages 3-5 are apt:

INTRODUCTORY NOTE

This bulletin has been prepared by a joint committee, representing the staffs of the Normal Schools and the Superintendents. It attempts to set out definitely and specifically the minimum requirements of the Programme of Studies for the Elementary School; or in other words to show what are the minimum pupil attainments that parents, teachers, superintendents and supervising officers

⁴⁴Final examinations did not involve "community living" or "social living," either. They were highly competitive, and Grade IX examination results were used to determine the eligibility of pupils for various high school programs.

⁴⁵For Grade VI arithmetic, the 1936 Elementary Programme said, "Teachers must make certain that the main aims and objectives in the elementary school have been achieved." (p. 105.)

should expect to find in the average school. It cannot be stated too emphatically that this bulletin in no way supersedes the Elementary Programme of Studies.

Since this bulletin is intended for use by the Superintendents as a practical guide, it will serve also the purpose of harmonizing in-service and normal-school practices, and of establishing a basis for comparing the work of schools in different parts of the Province. It is to be expected that all schools will reach the minimum standard of efficiency outlined herein; many schools will far exceed the standard indicated.

There is nothing in the Alberta Programme that condones sloppy learning, that prohibits a teacher from insisting that pupils shall acquire thoroughly and competently certain basic skills and knowledges. Thorough mastery and retention of these will justify the intelligent use of repetition and drill. Pupils should be more widely informed, and better informed, at the conclusion of an enterprise than they were at its inception. If there has been no increment of habit, attitude, skill and knowledge, then the enterprise has been, in a large measure, a failure.

Statements of this kind are not necessarily at variance with a policy of promotion by social maturity, but they do create upon teachers a pressure to bring most pupils up to a certain "standard" before they send them on to the next "grade" in the next classroom. The various Annual Reports of the Department of Education have dozens of references to the standards of work being attained in different subjects; these views held by the Departmental inspectors and officials were bound to influence teachers, and to create difficulties in the teachers' application of a social maturity policy.

In 1953 the Department organized a Promotion Policies Committee which was to study promotion policies in the province and to suggest possible promotion policies for the future. The Promotion Policies Report of 1957 was the result. It was a much more logical and coherent document than any of the promotion policy statements of 1936-42. Relevant excerpts from the Report are quoted below. It is possible to note

that social maturity is now just one major factor among many major factors, that promotions have to be considered on the basis of what appears best for the individual, and that the suggested promotion policies could eliminate gross inequalities in promotion practices in Alberta.⁴⁶

General Criteria

The following criteria are guide lines, or general principles. Each requires judgment in applying it to the individual case. These statements, intelligently applied, might constitute the framework for the promotion policies of a school system.

1. Normal Progress should be one grade each year. Retardation or acceleration, which alter this normal progress, must be demonstrated to be in the best interest of the child.
2. Accelerations and Retardations should be approximately equal in number in any school system with large enough enrolment to smooth out chance fluctuations. An alternative plan not involving promotion policy is a basic program for slow learners and an enriched program for fast learners.
3. Achievement in School Subjects should not be the sole basis for acceleration and retardation.
4. Multi-factor Approach to promotional decisions should be used: chronological age, social maturity, achievement level, physical maturity, emotional status, etc.
5. Single Skill Deficiency should not determine retardation nor should unusual proficiency in a single skill determine acceleration. Exceptions to this might occur in Division I.
6. Remedial or Developmental Program rather than grade failure should be normal procedure in dealing with specific skill deficiencies.
7. The Long Range Welfare of the child should determine promotion, retardation, or acceleration, rather than a specific, perhaps temporary phase of behavior.
8. Individual Consideration should determine promotion, retardation, or acceleration--not blanket administration of rigid school-system-wide policy.

⁴⁶The Report did not cite evidence of any gross inequalities in the past.

9. Factual Information should determine promotion, retardation or acceleration--not personal reasons, hunches, etc.
10. Collective Decisions on acceleration or retardation should be the rule, rather than individual decisions.
11. Special Programs or Streaming should be used in preference to repeating a grade, e.g., a child's program is planned so that the first three grades are completed in four years. Streaming should also be used in preference to skipping a grade, e.g., the first three grades completed in two years.

Specific Suggestions

The suggestions listed below are readily administered. In sharp contrast with the preceding section, the suggestions presented here should not involve great difficulty in application. If followed, these suggestions would eliminate gross inequalities in promotion procedures in the province of Alberta.

EXCEPT IN UNUSUAL CIRCUMSTANCES AND FOR DEMONSTRABLE REASONS,

1. No child should remain in any grade longer than two years.
2. No child should remain longer than four years in any three consecutive grades.
3. No child should require more than ten years to complete Grade VIII.
4. Notification of possible failure should be given to parents by Christmas.
5. No child should be retained in the following grades if older than the following ages as of June 30: Grade V--age 12-6, Grade VI--age 13-6, Grade VII--age 14-6, Grade VIII--age 15-6. Exceptions might occur with New Canadians, with pupils who live in isolated areas, in cases of prolonged illness and the like.
6. No child should take less than six years to complete Grade VIII. This is a tentative recommendation requiring further research in Alberta.
7. No child should skip a grade in the sense of omitting the work of that grade.
8. Promotion in an accelerated program should occur during the school year rather than at the end.

⁴⁷Promotion Policies Report, 1957, pp. 6-7.

By the late 1950's various school systems in Alberta had begun to experiment with the "continuous progress" plan whereby formal arrangements were made for whole classes to move through six "years" of elementary school work in five, or six or seven years. In this way there was no skipping or failing of grades. While no official Departmental statement has been made about the continuous progress plan, the Annual Reports of the Department accept such plans as a normal part of school operation in the province.

Teaching Procedures

The available evidence indicates that the Department expected teachers to use all of the various teaching methods that had been advocated in the past,⁴⁸ and to add one new general approach. This was the "activity" or "enterprise" procedure, and was to be employed particularly in Social Studies. As the "Curriculum" section of this chapter has indicated, the activity method involved not only a procedure but also a particular way of organizing subject matter. This latter point must be understood if one is to understand the "enterprise."

A 1941 statement gives both concisely and precisely the opinions that appeared to lie behind the activity method:

The revised Programme for the Elementary School is based on a fundamental and well-established principle of psychology concerning the way in which human beings actually learn. Whether adults or children, they will learn only when they are engaged in some purposeful activity which they understand and appreciate, and consider to be worth while. In other words, children learn to do by doing,

⁴⁸For example, lecture, lecture-discussion, discussion, drill, games, demonstration, pupil experiments, pupil reports, extensive reading, intensive reading, etc.

not something that the teacher tells them to do, but something that they themselves want to do because it has a purpose and meaning and value for them. To this basic "activity" principle, three supplementary principles may be added:

First: pupils learn through activities to work with others, and to co-operate with others in determining a common purpose and achieving that purpose. They pool their resources and share their experience. Individual pupils do not strive to get ahead of everybody else without regard to consequences, or to learn by themselves, without interest in the welfare of the group. Co-operation, rather than competition, is the key-note of group activity.

Second: A large and important part of what pupils learn is not to be found in books. They live in an atmosphere of good human relationships; they acquire desirable social attitudes and understandings; they learn to control their feelings and emotions; they grow physically, emotionally and spiritually, as well as mentally. In the process of "growing up" they are becoming wholesome persons; and their growth is total, not partial.

Third: The school programme must take account of the fact that no two pupils are exactly alike. The pupils differ in physique, appearance, aptitudes, abilities and interests. School activities must provide a situation in which every child can learn; in which every child has an opportunity to express himself and to make his own appropriate contribution to the work of the group. Different pupils may do different things; but each will be held responsible by the group for what he is able and willing to undertake.⁴⁹

A definition of the enterprise indicate its nature:

The name "enterprise" has been chosen to designate the "doing or activity", rather than the familiar "project", because it has a somewhat stricter meaning. An enterprise is a definite undertaking; teacher and pupils agree upon it and tacitly promise to carry it through as agreed. An enterprise is an undertaking chosen, after consideration, for its interest and value; carefully planned in advance, carried out according to plan, and brought to a definite conclusion, after which some reckoning of gains is made. An enterprise is not only a carefully organized undertaking in itself, but is also a part of a whole, a definite step in a course designed to cover three years of work. Each enterprise involves planning, the organization of ideas and of materials, and co-operation. Enterprises include both mental and manual work, the collection of information and the practice of skills. A well chosen enterprise--

Is centered in the interests of the pupils.

Is within the range of their ability.

Suggests several kinds of information to be sought.

Offers several kinds of work to be done.

⁴⁹Annual Report, etc., 1941, pp. 12-13.

Provides different types of social experience.

Is capable of being completed within a reasonable length of time.⁵⁰

Elementary teachers were thus expected to choose an enterprise which arose out of pupils' interests, or could be expected to arouse considerable interest. The enterprise must give the pupil the same kind of useful knowledge as he would have gained through formal lessons and subjects.⁵¹ And it should provide many opportunities for motivating and practising such fundamental skills as those of the three R's,⁵² as well as providing opportunities for development of character and social adjustment. The enterprise technique was supposed to give practice in problem solving, in the scientific method, and in social living. Or to use a series of Departmental terms, the teacher best met a pupil's real needs by involving him in the meaningful and purposeful activities that naturally arose from the life situations of the integrated program.

The 1937 outline for Social Studies in the intermediate school said in part:

The basic principle of procedure in this course is that learning is an active process. The outline abounds in activities that call for pupil experimentation, individual research, and creative self-expression. The social studies classroom instead of being a place where children "learn" history, geography and civics, is to be a real laboratory, where co-operation, initiative, originality and responsibility are developed.⁵³

⁵⁰Programme of Studies for the Elementary School, 1936, p. 288.

⁵¹Promoters of the enterprise method held that pupils learned much more through the enterprise than through formal subjects.

⁵²An issue unresolved in Departmental publications is that of whether or not the enterprise could supply all the opportunities needed to build the basic skills.

⁵³Programme of Studies for the Intermediate School, 1937, p. 29.

While neither the junior nor the senior high school Social Studies courses called for the enterprise as a teaching procedure, these courses encouraged as much use of pupil interest and pupil activity as possible. The subject matter outlines for Grades VII-XII were broad enough to permit considerable freedom in selection of materials.⁵⁴

In 1954 the Department issued Bulletin 2a, Methods, The Enterprise. This booklet gave more systematic suggestions about the conduct of the enterprise than had previous publications, but it introduced nothing that was new in principle.

In earlier chapters of this study mention has been made of four different aspects of teaching. These four are as follows:

1. The relating of lessons to life outside the school.
2. The relating of subject to subject.
3. The necessity of requiring sound, thorough work of the pupils.
4. The necessity of using pupil interest to secure the best results.

All four of these features of school life are dealt with extensively in Departmental publications of 1936-63.⁵⁵ There are so many references to these topics that there is little value in quoting or

⁵⁴This illustrates again Departmental opinions about the interdependence of subject matter prescription and teaching procedures.

⁵⁵For example, for #1: Programme of Studies for the Intermediate School, 1937, pp. 88,94,148,213; Programme of Studies for the High School, Bulletin I, 1939, pp. 38,40.

#2: Programme of Studies for the High School, Bulletin III, 1939, pp. 42,54; Annual Report, etc., 1940, pp. 20,22,71.

#3: Annual Report, etc., 1938, p. 62; 1941, p. 69; 1943, p. 13; 1945, p. 25; 1947, p. 57; 1949, p. 32; 1953, p. 28; 1954, p. 30; 1957, p. 34.

#4: Programme of Studies for the Elementary School, 1936, pp. 3,4, 83,87; Programme of Studies for the Intermediate School, 1937, pp. 87,205.

listing them all. It is sufficient to say that Departmental writers developed many pages of material upon what one might call the "Doctrine of Interest."⁵⁶ Allied to this main doctrine were the views about relating school to outside life, about making school as much like life as possible ("life situations") and about relating subject to subject ("integration"). If a teacher conducted his classroom in accordance with Departmental direction and suggestion, so said the Department, in effect, he could not help but produce students who had developed good character, good social adjustment, and high standards of scholarship and achievement.

II. AIMS FOR THE SCHOOL

The aims of 1936-63 are much the same as those of 1922-36 and, in fact, continue many of the aims to be found in the Territorial period. There are some additions in 1936-63 and some changes in emphases. These additions and changes will be noted in the pages that follow.

In previous chapters this study has contained a good deal of expository material about aims. There have also been many quotations. In this chapter, it is considered sufficient to give a few relevant and representative quotations for each aim, and some explanation when necessary.⁵⁷

⁵⁶"Interest is the dynamic motivator of all that man does best." (Programme of Studies for the Intermediate School, 1937, p. 28.)

⁵⁷The 1936-63 era is one of systematic and highly detailed statements of aims. For the convenience of the reader Appendix C gives lists of aims for 1942, 1947, 1950.

Intellectual Development

The three R's. The 1936-63 period continued to stress the need for high standards in the fundamentals of reading, writing and arithmetic. This is evident from the following quotations which come from various years in the 1936-63 era.

The job of the elementary school, Grades I to VI, still is, perhaps above everything else, the teaching of the basic skills. Next perhaps comes the development of acceptable social habits and capacities. Then follows the accumulation of knowledge of various sorts, and finally artistic and aesthetic experiences. It is very difficult to state priorities in these matters and to a considerable degree they are inter-related. Obviously all are important and valuable. Equally obviously the time in which to undertake them is limited. Hence if good comprehensive work is to be done with no undue sacrifice at any point only the best in teachers and the best in facilities will suffice.⁵⁸

In Division I, the aim in reading was to help the pupil master the mechanics of the subject; in Division II, the aim is to train him to use his ability to read as a tool with which to secure pleasure and information. As has already been pointed out, boys and girls like to find out things for themselves; and for this high adventure of finding out things, reading is a most important equipment.

Indeed, in Division II, finding out things is more than an adventure; it is a business. The pupils now begin to study several new subjects in which minimum requirements are laid down and tests given. These requirements presuppose that the pupil is able to read with reasonable good speed and comprehension; he must, therefore, before upon the Division II course, be brought up to standard in these two essentials.⁵⁹

Every teacher will therefore be a teacher of English. Neither Literature nor Language can now be regarded as compartments that are separate from other parts of the programme. The social ideals embodied in Literature selections will be subject to scrutiny in the Social Studies class. Pupils' reports on outside reading, the concise statements required of them in observations and experiments

⁵⁸W. H. Swift, "Alberta's Schools," Education Week (a 1951 publication of the Alberta Educational Council), p. 9.

⁵⁹Programme of Studies for the Elementary School, 1936, p. 17.

and their well-expressed ideas concerning problems under discussion, are practical exercises in Oral and Written Language. In schools where instruction is departmentalized, the teacher of English can no longer be held solely responsible for checking and criticizing oral and written English. It will be the duty of the principal to devise a plan for distributing the responsibility.⁶⁰

GRADE II

The fact that children's interests are determined socially must be kept in mind. Accordingly, it is necessary to continue the informal teaching of Arithmetic in this grade. Experiences in number should be broadened through activities based on the need for number. Such incidental learning, however, is slow and time-consuming, and it is apt to be fragmentary and superficial. For the development of sound skill and knowledge, the new arithmetical elements must be abstracted from number situations and become the objects of direct teaching. Drill will be found helpful when the need is apparent.⁶¹

. . .Improvement is noticeable in nearly every phase of the daily programme. The skill subjects are given regular attention. Three areas in which progress would seem to be most noteworthy are primary reading, spelling, and arithmetic. Opinions still vary, however, on the effectiveness of language instruction, particularly in those areas where the homes share a second language. The cultural subjects such as art and music are capably handled only in those instances where teachers and supervisors have a particular interest. The radio programmes in music are mentioned in appreciation of this service. Physical education and handwriting leave much to be desired, particularly in rural schools where teacher time is at a premium.⁶²

Each child should increase his capacities to:

1. Read for one's own pleasure and to obtain needed information.
2. Communicate with others orally and in writing.
3. Listen.
4. Find, organize and use information.
5. Use numbers and mathematical processes effectively.⁶³

⁶⁰Programme of Studies for the Intermediate School, 1937, p. 17.

⁶¹Programme of Studies for the Elementary School, 1942, p. 289.

⁶²Annual Report, etc., 1948, p. 39. This quotation is taken from the consolidation of the inspectors' annual reports.

⁶³Programme of Studies for the Elementary School, Bulletin II, 1947, p. 11.

The prime aim of the school is to assist each Alberta youth in his growth towards maximum self-realization. The following definite goals are included under this heading.

- i. Health and physical fitness.
- ii. Mental health.
- iii. Intellectual achievement:
 - a. ability to think rationally, to express thought clearly and to read and listen with understanding;
 - b. a broad understanding of the methods of science, its major findings and its influence on human affairs;
 - c. a broad understanding of the fundamental principles of mathematics and their importance in daily living; a mastery of mathematical skills necessary for vocational competence;⁶⁴

Two points, often obscured in the controversy over "progressive education," are that the "reformers" of 1936 were looking for a better way of accomplishing some old aims; and in so doing were looking for better methods and better teachers. In keeping with the 1936 emphasis upon the scientific method, at least one Departmental writer looked for evidence to support the method of the "New Education":

Recently, the Education Department of the State of New York, on the results of a six-year experiment with the "activity programme" in 70 schools of New York City, has officially adopted the new type of education and recommended that it be used throughout the whole school system of America's largest city. The report from the State of New York finds that under the New Education, pupils do just as well in the three R's as they do under the traditional system; and that they excel in desirable attitudes and traits of character and personality, including a sense of social responsibility, co-operativeness, self-discipline and respect for the school and its work.⁶⁵

Also, Normal School entrants were required to write special qualifying examinations in Spelling, Reading and English Usage. Those below a certain standard were compelled to withdraw from Normal School

⁶⁴Curriculum Guide for Alberta Secondary Schools, 1950, pp. 15-16.

⁶⁵Annual Report, etc., 1941, p. 14.

Training. This was an attempt to ensure competence in the fundamental skills in the teaching body itself.⁶⁶

A body of knowledge.

DIVISION II: SOCIAL EXPERIENCES
INTRODUCTION

The Aims:

1. To educate, that is, to develop the boys and girls in body, mind and character, by providing them with experiences in line with their interests, which are "attracted more and more by definite objects, by particular occupations, by specific branches of knowledge and problems of activity increasingly restricted and refined".
2. To train pupils in collecting, selecting and organizing information, and in the application of organized information to the solution of specific problems of activity.
3. To help pupils to acquire as much useful knowledge as possible in the school subjects: history, geography, science, health, literature, music, and art.⁶⁷

III. Understandings:

Each child should learn to recognize the significance of:

1. The social life of expanding communities.
2. The interdependence of all forms of life.
3. The effects of environment on human life.
4. Man's increasing control over nature.
5. Man's increasing knowledge of social development and social control.
6. The contributions of the past to the present.
7. Democracy as a way of life.
8. Responsibilities inherent in a democratic way of life.⁶⁸

Subject Matter in Enterprise Work

One of the most serious charges against the activity movement is that it fails to emphasize "essential subject matter". One may, of course, argue that no one agrees as to what subject matter is actually

⁶⁶Annual Report, etc., 1937, p. 43. The function of these kinds of tests is now carried out through regulations of the general entrance requirements to the University of Alberta.

⁶⁷Programme of Studies for the Elementary School, 1936, p. 287.

⁶⁸Programme of Studies for the Elementary School, 1947, p. 11.

"essential"; or again that there are so many important facts that complete coverage is impossible hence every curriculum must make some selection. No matter how "liberal" a point of view we take respecting prescribed subject content we cannot afford to overlook certain considerations:

1. Sound citizenship demands genuine understandings, and understandings in turn are based upon a complete, accurate command and evaluation of facts.
2. Wholesome personal growth can proceed only when the child feels he is making adequate use of his native intellectual power, i.e., when he feels he is learning something worthwhile.
3. The traditional function of the school has been to impart knowledge, and society still expects pupils to "know something" as a direct result of school attendance.

Whatever subject matter is required at any grade level must be justified in terms of its contribution to effective living. This does not mean that subject matter can be passed lightly by or depreciated as unimportant. A few extremists may have pointed out that most facts learned in school are soon forgotten, that an emphasis on facts may replace a genuine concern for the child as a person. On such grounds they claim that the subject matter to be covered is of minor consequence. This course of studies does not support such a point of view. This program insists that an adequate body of accurate facts must be mastered for every topic upon which an enterprise is attempted. Social competence rather than encyclopedic learning is the goal of our education, but within that goal facts play an indispensable part. The accumulation of facts for mere mental exercise or intellectual exhibition has little educative value; the accumulation of facts for significant understanding is essential in every field of study.⁶⁹

A group of general principles.

This programme requires a steadily growing acquaintance with major principles and generalizations that will begin with very simple studies in Division I, and continue with studies of increasing difficulty as the pupils advance through Division II, the intermediate school, and the high school. The teacher will of course recognize that the concepts of science cannot be taught to children as abstract principles. Nevertheless, it is the teacher's grasp of these concepts that will guide the children, and prevent their losing themselves in a maze of detailed information.⁷⁰

Good results of enterprise teaching are seen in those classrooms in which it has been handled in a businesslike manner; this is most

⁶⁹Bulletin II, Elementary School, 1949, p. 15.

⁷⁰Programme of Studies for the Elementary School, 1936, p. 144.

noticeable in the last year of Division II and the first part of Division III. The pupils show capacity to generalize and draw conclusions of their own; they also show increased facility in expressing themselves orally, in reasoning, and accepting responsibility. In lower grades the children are more keenly interested in their work; co-operation rather than envy-engendering competition tends to make the school happier places for all; rural pupils are less reticent about speaking in the presence of strangers.⁷¹

There is a shortage of teachers qualified to offer a challenging course in biology. It is unfortunate but true that too much teaching in Biology 32 has emphasized the memorization of names rather than an understanding of scientific principles.⁷²

Clear thinking.

CRITICAL THINKING

Critical thinking has been known by a great many other names: problem-solving, inferential thinking, scientific thinking, effective thinking, reasoning, or simply thinking. By whatever name it is known, it must be distinguished from rote memory, wishful thinking, daydreaming, prejudice, hearsay, fantasy or any related mental habit that may prompt response or color behaviour.

The solution of problems through the rational exercise of knowledge, memory, imagination and similar mental powers is the culminating function of intelligence. This ability to derive satisfactory answers to pressing human needs through an application of mental faculties we know as critical thinking. It is safe to say that the development of critical thinking is an ultimate goal of all democratic education. Views may differ as to what constitute the critical problems and the satisfactory solutions for our times. But the avenue by which those solutions may be reached is unquestioned. The ideal of democracy is that every person shall understand and exercise this function of critical thinking.⁷³

3. Problem-solving.-- The instruction must be of a kind that appeals to the active, thinking pupil, rather than to the passive, non-stimulated absorber of facts. The pupil should learn how to collect

⁷¹Annual Report, etc., 1938, p. 62. (Italics not in original.)

⁷²Annual Report, etc., 1961, p. 38.

⁷³Foundations of Education, Bulletin I, 1949, p. 55. This quotation is taken from a four thousand word essay on "Critical Thinking" found in Bulletin I.

material for his problem and to select what is pertinent; how to secure necessary help; and how to test his results.⁷⁴

B. Pupil Attitudes.

The course should induce (1) the spirit of teamwork in solving group problems; (2) an attitude of rational enquiry towards all social problems; (3) a disposition to measure results in terms of community welfare; and (4) a sense of civic responsibility.⁷⁵

Development of creativity.

Of these interpretative methods of studying literature, the last is the simplest; it is also one that makes rich returns to the trained reader. It should be remembered, however, that the fruits of the method are rich in proportion as other methods have been practiced. It is the experience of literature that makes it live for the pupil; that enriches background, develops imagination, deepens understanding and strengthens appreciation, giving increased delight. By the accumulation of these creative experiences, the reader is, by and by, able to see the page live and move before him while he sits still and silent in his chair.⁷⁶

Each child should have experiences that help to develop:

1. Self-respect--marked by control, discipline and direction through one's own initiative.
2. Creativeness--marked by personal expression that becomes unique and revealing.⁷⁷

Transfer of training. The idea of transfer of training in school subjects is not given specifically in 1936-63 sets of aims. (It is obviously implicit in course outlines and procedures, though, since the notion of transfer is basic to the very idea of a school.) However, in the early part of the 1936 period, the concept of transfer is generally related to the social development of pupils. This emphasis upon social

⁷⁴Programme of Studies for the Elementary School, 1936, p. 146.

⁷⁵Ibid. ⁷⁶Ibid., p. 39.

⁷⁷Programme of Studies for the Elementary School, 1947, p. 10.

development and adjustment, good human relations, and co-operative living, is found in Departmental publications again and again, and is a natural accompaniment of the emphasis upon the new enterprise procedure. One quotation will show what the reader could find in dozens of other quotations:

It is by engaging in many different kinds of activity directed towards the attainment of all the many different small purposes that make up his ultimate goal of personal comfort and social happiness that the individual learns to meet any situation in which he may find himself. A child learns to read easily and well, not by reading and re-reading the same story, but by reading many stories. It is by continually recognizing the words in new combinations that he becomes able, presently, to recognize them in any combination and so finds himself a good reader. In the same way the individual, by continually using the same actions in new combinations to achieve new purposes, is presently able to face any situation, recognize the desirable objectives that it offers, and apply the right combination of actions to secure the attainment of each. Thus, it is not so much by the number as by the versatility of his activities that the individual's power to act is increased.⁷⁸

In 1949, in Foundations of Education, Bulletin I, the Department issued a fifteen hundred word statement, about transfer of training,⁷⁹ indicating the theories of transfer by identical elements and by generalization. Teachers are advised that these theories are not mutually exclusive, and that transfer can take place in the areas of substance (skills, content and knowledge) and procedure (exact measurement, patient research, scientific organization, etc.).

⁷⁸Donalda Dickie, The Enterprise in Theory and Practice (Toronto: W. J. Gage and Co. Limited, 1941), p. 63.

⁷⁹Foundations of Education, Bulletin I, 1949, p. 74. This statement is typical of the more balanced kinds of statements found in Departmental literature, after 1945-47. That is, while social development is still very much an aim of the Department, there is more attention to individual development and the research related to such development.

Physical Health

1. The teacher should arrange her program of health teaching on the basis of the immediate needs of her particular group. Furthermore, the needs of the individual child should be met as far as possible.
2. Health behaviour is the main goal of health education. Emphasis should be placed upon what the child does, rather than upon what he knows.
3. The approach in health teaching should be positive rather than negative. Emphasis should be placed upon what to do, rather than upon what not to do.
4. In the field of health, abundant opportunity should be given for pupil activity; since children establish habits of right conduct by practice rather than by instruction.
5. Life situations furnish a setting for health teaching that is timely and welcome. The alert teacher is ever watchful for such opportunities. The fundamental principles of healthful living are persistent and continuous throughout the grades. The approach at each age level must be made on the basis of the natural interests of the children and their capacity to understand and react.
6. Repetition is absolutely essential to habit formation. The same health habits must be emphasized over and over, with new experiences to sustain interest and arouse desire for greater understanding and better accomplishment.
7. Children should be given as much responsibility as they can carry for their health practices and behaviour in school and at home. They must not be held responsible for factors which they cannot control.⁸⁰

The following quotation from the Annual Report of 1941 shows the long tradition of concern not only for health habits of pupils, but also for the cleanliness and beauty of children's surroundings.

(c) Health and Physical Education.--Children are developing in health habits, health information and health consciousness. Daily health inspection, health records, use of individual drinking cups and towels are now standard practice. However, attitudes toward public property, beauty and cleanliness of the grounds and buildings, light heat and ventilation still leave something to be desired.⁸¹

Health instruction, often criticized in past Annual Reports from 1905 to 1962 was criticized again in 1962 (pp. 23-24) for its vague and

⁸⁰Programme of Studies for the Elementary School, 1936, p. 148.

⁸¹Annual Report, etc., 1941, p. 72.

unsatisfactory nature.

Aesthetic Development

Aesthetic Attitudes:

These result from an appreciation of music, art and nature.

In this division, children should learn to appreciate rhythm--in games, music, art and literature. They should also appreciate the beauty of nature.

Creative expression will come as the result of aesthetic attitudes and appreciations.⁸²

A large label, ELEMENTARY SCIENCE, should appear well up in the corner selected for science activity. An experiment table or desk, with upright shelves at the back and sectioned shelves below, should be improvised. Even a set of apple boxes, nailed together, can be made into a very satisfactory laboratory set-up. An oil-cloth cover for the desk-top must always be left orderly, clean, and with all materials in proper compartments. Piles of stuff in helter-skelter arrangement must never be allowed. Part of the science training should be found in systematic arranging of all equipment. Order is nature's first law.⁸³

Religious Knowledge and Development

The evidence of 1936-45 appears to be curiously ambivalent about the place of Christianity in the school. In the School Act, of course, the standard provision for religious instruction existed.⁸⁴ The three Ministers of Education and the one Deputy-Minister of Education in this period were all people of strong Christian conviction. Dr. Donalda Dickie of the Edmonton Normal School staff, and the author of the influential book, The

⁸²Programme of Studies for the Elementary School, 1936, p. 286.

⁸³Programme of Studies for the Elementary School, 1942, p. 58. (Italics not in original.) The last sentence of this quotation sounds as though it were written by Dr. Goggin of the Territorial period. He expressed such sentiments regularly.

⁸⁴In any school, public or separate, religious instruction could be given in the last half hour of the school day.

Enterprise In Theory and Practice, said at one point in this book that "men and women have come to understand that the principle of life is growth, development by changes infinitely small, infinitely slow; that poverty, sin, and sorrow are not the results of God's will but of man's ignorance; and that their eradication is man's God-appointed task."⁸⁵ In the Program of Studies for the Elementary School, 1936, there are direct references to knowledge about the church as a "community", and to the development of the church in the West's pioneer days:⁸⁶

- (3) The Church.--Here we are taught to live uprightly; moral and social needs are given attention. We are taught the lessons of love for our fellow men; of giving help to the needy. The church gives poise, stability and nobility. The minister is the guide of this community.⁸⁷

III--The Church in the Wilderness:

Study of the contributions of the Church to the communities of the early Great West. Consideration of the work of Taché, Lacombe, John and George McDougall, Black, etc. Comparison with missionary efforts of to-day.⁸⁸

Two of the desirable outcomes of enterprise work were supposed to be "some understanding of the magnificence of creation, and reverence for the God of the universe."⁸⁹ In the 1939 high school Social Studies courses there were optional units in religious knowledge (mostly historical) in Grades X and XI.

Yet at the same time as the above evidence exists for Departmental persons and statements, there is material which seems to stand in

⁸⁵Dickie, op. cit., p. 47.

⁸⁶The Enterprise theme of "Expression" included material on religion as well as on art, drama, music and the dance.

⁸⁷Programme of Studies for the Elementary School, 1936, p. 112.

⁸⁸Ibid., p. 124. ⁸⁹Ibid., p. 307.

opposition. First, man's basic human needs are defined as being nine in number; this list includes Food, Clothing, Shelter, Transportation, etc., but places religion only as a sub-category of Expression. One writer of 1936 says that the school has to prepare pupils for the adult world: "The 'doings' of adult life, both social and economic, are basically concerned with the production and consumption of goods; that is, with the manipulation of environment. . . ."90

There is no indication in this statement or in the pages from which it was taken, that the "doings" of adult life include basic activities other than production and consumption of goods.

A 1936 statement about the problem-solving method in Elementary Science is revealing. The author does not indicate how one might reconcile his "scientific" viewpoint and his conception of the changing of "truth" with the ideas held by a Christian idealist:

Aim and Procedure. [Elementary Science]

1. The aim of this course is to help the child orientate himself amidst the natural phenomena of his environment. The objective for the child is scientific understanding. In the traditional approach to elementary science through "nature study," the motivation of "wonder" led to the nature myth, personification and anthropomorphism, rather than to intelligent enquiry and a scientific attitude. It did little to establish in the child's mind the broad principle of cause and effect, which, as civilization advances, replaces belief in magic, astrology, and superstition. . . .

2. As the children solve problems, and in so doing arrive at the notion of cause and effect, they will also learn that man's conception of truth changes. Once man believed that a fact is a fact for all time; but now man knows that what appears to be a fact today may be modified by the discoveries of tomorrow. Hence the teacher will not suggest to the pupils that his words are infallible. He will co-operate with his pupils, helping them to realize that their solution of a problem may be modified in the light of more evidence. He will accustom the pupils to compare their conclusions with the conclusions of others who have worked on the same

⁹⁰Ibid., p. 287.

problem; and to examine, when authorities are referred to, whether the authorities used the scientific method and stated their evidence.⁹¹

With 1945 there comes a whole series of statements in which it is made abundantly clear that the school should not only give knowledge about religion, but it should also be as sympathetic as possible to instruction in religion, and specifically in Christianity. A series of quotations follows. The first quotation is highly significant, for it clarifies the Department's point of view.

At a meeting of the General Curriculum Committee, the Honorable R. E. Ansley, Minister of Education, outlined the government's policy with respect to curriculum matters. He said that it was the wish of the Department of Education that increased emphasis be placed upon the inculcation of the principles of Christianity and the principles of democracy.⁹²

Canadian citizenship should mean something vital. Pride in Canadian achievements and a desire to make Canada more truly great are worth time and effort. Students should attain a realization that religious faith is the best basis for a dynamic citizenship. From Christianity--for most of them in this country--should come their ideals and their drive for the improvement of society. Service to the larger group, the recognition of the innate worth of one's fellows, tolerance, loyalty and other Christian ideals should be fostered in discussion and practiced in classroom and co-curricular activities. High school students are mature enough to consider such general objectives; an occasional period devoted to discussion of these will be found to have its own particular value.⁹³

. . . It is not intended that the teacher should adhere strictly to the outline, which, possibly, includes more than can be covered during the year, but in selecting and organizing the material he intends to teach, he should note that the direction of the course is towards an idealistic, rather than a materialistic, philosophy of life. One of the outcomes should be an enhanced appreciation of the spiritual values of life.⁹⁴

⁹¹Ibid., p. 145.

⁹²Annual Report, etc., 1945, p. 44. Since one cannot find any particular emphasis in 1936-45 documents upon Christianity, one must accept the term increased emphasis with reservation.

⁹³Programme of Studies for the High School, Bulletin II, 1946, p. 5.

⁹⁴Ibid., p. 41. (Introduction to the high school Psychology course).

20. Developing a Healthy Mind.

The importance of having a healthy mind.

The healthy minded person has a task.

Healthy minded people use money wisely.

Healthy minded people have a faith in God.⁹⁵

Our society is based upon certain ideologies, beliefs and attitudes, built up over a long period by our most intelligent people. Inherent in Christianity, which is the corner-stone of our social structure, are fundamental principles which must be more fully understood and applied. We believe that certain qualities, standards and principles are essential for good citizenship. These we inculcate in the home, in the school and by all other acceptable social agencies.⁹⁶

Knowledge, thinking ability and other skills are still not sufficient equipment for the highest type of Canadian citizen. Good citizenship demands a high moral standard based on Christian ideals, attitudes and beliefs. It demands good habits and the kind of behaviour which contributes to social betterment. The wise teacher strives to have his pupils acquire significant information, adequate skills socialized attitudes, co-operative habits and a vital Christian outlook on life.⁹⁷

In a Christian democratic society the Christian religion is the highway to social progress. Scientists are making wonderful discoveries that prolong the life of man; inventors are producing labour saving devices to make life more pleasant; radio and the movies and other modern machines give us recreation; fast transport carries us from one place to another with ever increasing comfort and rapidity; modern social services look after our health, our education, our needs in old age or distress. All of these things are important in the life of man, because they make this world a more pleasant place to live in. But none of these things shows man how to live. None of these give him the spiritual values, principles and ideals, or a faith by which to live. None of them supply the answer to the questions, Why am I here? Where am I going? The Christian religion supplies the answers, and points the way to a better way of life, a better society.⁹⁸

A 1951 publication in junior high school General Science makes it clear that Departmental officials do not believe there to be any

⁹⁵Ibid., p. 43. (Part of the Psychology outline.)

⁹⁶Social Studies in the Intermediate Grades, 1947, p. 5.

⁹⁷Ibid., p. 6.

⁹⁸Social Studies in Grade Nine, 1948, p. 43.

necessity for a conflict between religion and science.

Great scientists and great religious teachers recognize that the deepest beauty in the world of nature lies in its order and meaning. The function of the school is to ensure that the appreciations of science are not at variance with religious teachings. Science instruction should strengthen religious convictions. A proper understanding of cause and effect in science should counteract the idea of "blind chance", or "luck".

Science understandings lead to the development of an attitude of reverence. The importance of the general idea that "Time is endless" may lead the students to establish such a strong appreciation for this generalization, that he will ultimately develop a strengthening of his religious convictions and develop an idealistic way of thinking about the relation of his life to the universe as a whole. . . .⁹⁹

The objectives of the elementary school, 1949, include reverence "marked by a conviction of Deity, and a regard for His supreme handiwork, mankind."¹⁰⁰ And the secondary school statement of 1950 called for the following:

The development of a pattern of values, attitudes, and ethical ideals which generalize and furnish justification for good habits and culminate in a philosophy of life which recognizes the importance of religion.¹⁰¹

On page 7 of the same publication, it is asserted that "the curriculum for Alberta schools should be founded upon principles that are compatible with the ideals of Christianity and democracy." In this latter statement, it is possible to see some withdrawal from the advanced position taken in 1945 in that the curriculum is not necessarily supposed to require inculcation of Christianity, but is at least supposed to be

⁹⁹Junior High School Curriculum Guide for General Science, 1951, p. 33.

¹⁰⁰Elementary School, Bulletin II, 1949, p. 10.

¹⁰¹Curriculum Guide for Alberta Secondary Schools, 1950, p. 16.

compatible with it, and provide possibilities for its inculcation. It is useful to observe that one of the School Book Branch catalogues now lists a number of books useful for religious information and instruction.

Vocational Preparation

Vocational preparation again involves all three of the previous components of vocational exploration, vocational training, and inculcation of respect for various occupations. To these, the Department added vocational guidance, an attempt to give pupils a general awareness of occupational opportunities. Exploration of vocations was an integral part of junior and senior high school Industrial Arts programs. The major technical courses in high school gave vocational training as well as exploration. The greatest emphasis upon vocational training occurred in 1963 with the building of vocational high school facilities throughout the province and with the provision of courses for these schools.

A 1937 quotation shows all four of the aims listed above. Other quotations follow.

General Shop courses offer a special contribution to the educational process by providing fundamental experiences at a vital period of growth. By means of the abundant opportunities they present for the reception of a wide range of sensory impressions and for the co-ordination, direction and control of motor responses, they assist in the mental development of the individual in a manner that is not exceeded by any other subject of instruction. Through the exercise of the creative impulse, the student-worker also experiences the uplifting satisfaction that comes from seeing the product of his own brain and hand. In those creative exercises involving personal participation in constructive projects, the student acquires a valuable means of self-expression that ought to make his life more enjoyable and more useful whether he engages in a vocation that demands manual skill or he uses it avocationally as an outlet for a pent-up physical urge. Because of those experiences he becomes more adaptable in the environment in which he may find himself. He should be able to make finer and better judgments involving complex factors in actual life situations. Upon this

ability depends much of the success he may achieve during his life time.

In addition to these major benefits, the student becomes acquainted with some of the more important tools, materials and processes used in industry; he learns the importance of planning and of orderly procedure as necessary steps in any type of production; he develops an appreciation of the thought, labor and skill embodied in the things by which he is surrounded; and he is led to respect the workers and the work in the great field of manual and mechanical activities. He gains a degree of skill in the operations he performs and discovers the extent of his mechanical aptitude; he is more likely to choose a vocation suited to his tastes and abilities.¹⁰²

The Commerical subjects serve three purposes: firstly, they have an exploratory value and enable the student, without interrupting his general education, to find out whether he has an ability in, and a taste for, any of the courses in this group; secondly, many young people take these courses for their personal-use value; and, finally, in schools which have the qualified staff members and the necessary equipment, vocational courses are offered that train the students for office positions. . . .¹⁰³

. . .With the establishment of the new position of Supervisor of Guidance, the high school teachers anticipate more up-to-date occupational information, useful tests and actual assistance in establishing effective guidance services within the schools. The Supervisor of Guidance, Mr. A. A. Aldridge, has been in constant demand at conventions, and, in addition, has taken part in programmes of Teachers' Institutes held in several of the school divisions.¹⁰⁴

This year sixty schools offered one or more prevocational and/or vocational courses in the agriculture electives to a total enrolment of 1,325 students. In content, most schools offering these courses are attempting to meet the needs and interests of farm and non-farm boys and girls. Through these courses they are endeavoring to develop desirable understandings of and attitudes toward agriculture and its many problems, to develop skills in the practical application of scientific agricultural problems in the communities; and to develop strong vocational interests in agriculture and its related fields.¹⁰⁵

¹⁰²Programme of Studies for the Intermediate School, 1937, p. 206.

¹⁰³Annual Report, etc., 1947, p. 45.

¹⁰⁴Ibid.

¹⁰⁵Annual Report, etc., 1955, p. 38.

HOMEMAKING 1

Home Economics has for its ultimate aim the improvement of home and family life through the training in youth for the vocation of home making.¹⁰⁶

Occupational Preparation.

The school must help each Alberta youth to develop those understandings and attitudes that will make him an intelligent and productive participant in economic life; and assist him to develop saleable skills, or prepare him for post-school vocational training. The youth should:

- i. Become familiar with the range of vocational opportunities open to him;
- ii. Learn how to take full advantage of the school and extra-school guidance services;
- iii. Achieve an acceptance of his own capacities as indicated by professional analysis of interests, socio-economic status, aptitudes, personality, and native intelligence.¹⁰⁷

Preparation for Leisure

As before, preparation for leisure appears to be carried out in the school through such subjects as Art, Music, Drama, Physical Education, and Literature. Vocations and Guidance also involves discussion of leisure activities.

These courses are planned to give the student an introduction to and to provide a survey of the broad fields of subject matter in an art education. They are exploratory rather than exhaustive, giving the pupil some idea of the place art can fill in the life of the average individual. They are for all students, many of whom will not elect art as a vocation, but will be called upon to make choices between the beautiful and the commonplace. They are cultural in that they give the pupil a greater measure of appreciation of the beautiful in art, whether in the field of fine or industrial arts.¹⁰⁸

Objectives

1. To provide opportunities for students with little previous

¹⁰⁶Programme of Studies for the High School, Bulletin VI, 1939, p. 24.

¹⁰⁷Curriculum Guide for Alberta Secondary Schools, 1950, p. 17.

¹⁰⁸Programme of Studies for the Intermediate School, 1937, p. 140 (re: Art).

training in music to increase skill as performers and to increase sensitivity as listeners.

2. To encourage in such students a desire to continue their musical experiences after graduation.

3. To reveal the social significance of music by indicating how it often reflects the time and place of its composition.

4. To encourage students with talent and ability to continue in choral, orchestral and band courses.¹⁰⁹

. . . Primarily we are concerned with helping pupils build permanent interests in a variety of reading material of high value. . . .¹¹⁰

Mental Health

Mental health is explicitly made one of the aims of education in the 1936-63 period. It is difficult to separate this aim completely from such other aims of the school as good character, good social adjustment and good citizenship, but a distinction is made in this study because Departmental documents appear to make such a distinction. As will be observed in the first quotation given below, mental health, though considered as dependent upon physical health, is thought to be more important than physical health. Other quotations follow.

V. Mental Hygiene.

The teacher must keep in mind that mental health is more important than physical health, and that all the school activities contribute to the child's personality. The teacher may judge the progress a child is making towards a healthy personality by asking herself these questions: Is the child courteous and agreeable? Is he considerate of the rights of others? Does he face difficulties cheerfully? Does he concentrate on the task at hand? Does he co-operate with the group? Does he day-dream?

Good mental health is dependent upon good physical health. It is extremely important that defects be recognized and corrected

¹⁰⁹Senior High School Curriculum Guide for Music, 1959, p. 7. (Objectives for Music 10.)

¹¹⁰A Reading Handbook (Interim Edition), 1962, p. 41.

early in life. Children cannot be expected to have healthy personalities who see things darkly and indistinctly; or who hear only part of what is said; or whose systems are poisoned by the absorption of toxic substances from bad teeth or tonsils; or whose body and brain cells are crying for food because of poor nourishment.

Other factors that influence the mental health of a school child are the classroom--its general appearance, ventilation, lighting, seating, etc.; the teacher's appearance and manner, her attitude toward life in general and toward her work as an educator; the classroom procedure--whether the participation is real or artificial, whether the children are succeeding in the art of living day by day, and gaining satisfaction in the accomplishment of new tasks.¹¹¹

. . .The educative process must be seen as the regulation of the school environment in such a way as to secure maximal growth and development of the whole child. In this process the child acquires the skills, information and techniques which are his rightful heritage from past centuries. He is also guided and directed in his emotional and social development in such a manner as to insure that happy adjustment to life which constitutes an ideal integrated personality. He must be led to discover in his daily experience in a social situation those concepts, attitudes and ideals which govern the relationship of the individual to society, and which, when habituated, culminate in character.

To express this viewpoint more concisely, education must cease to be a narrowly intellectual process, whose sole concern is the acquisition of subject-matter and skills, and enlarge its objective to include those aspects of child development which are at least as important in development of worthwhile citizens, the emotional, the social and the volitional sides of his nature.¹¹²

1. Development of sound mental health through establishing a happy frame of mind.
 - (a) A cheerful attitude in underaking new or difficult task.
 - (b) Evidence of satisfaction in the achievement of a task.
 - (c) A cheery environment or room atmosphere as a product of joint co-operation between pupil and teacher.
 - (d) A friendly manner towards others.¹¹³

¹¹¹Programme of Studies for the Elementary School, 1936, pp. 151-152.

¹¹²Programme of Studies for the Elementary School, 1942, pp. 7-8.

¹¹³Ibid., p. 51.

The emotional development of the child must be controlled and guided towards the ideal of moderate emotionality. All extremes of emotional expression must be avoided, as must the suppression of our feelings. Social life requires moderate emotional responses to appropriate situations. The child must acquire a body of attitudes, opinions and ideals of a socially acceptable nature to which have been conditioned the emotion and feeling states which society approves. In the enlarged social life which is found in the newer schools, invaluable opportunities exist for development of worthwhile emotional adjustments.

The social maturation of the school child involves a proper relationship of the individual to the social group. This necessitates habituation of the child to a social environment, and the acquisition of behaviour patterns which will enable him to associate with his contemporaries in harmonious and co-operative activity...¹¹⁴

A 1949 statement about certain outcomes of the work of the primary school shows concern for mental health.

There are however, certain phases of these general purposes that are the particular responsibility of teachers of primary grades. A consideration of these specific areas would certainly include, among others, the following outcomes:

1. Proper adjustment through sympathetic guidance and understanding during the transition from the home to the school.
2. Emotional security, founded in teacher affection, during the shift from a self-centred individual to an accepted contributing member of a group.
3. Sensitivity to the rights, desires, and contributions of other people.
4. Habits of safe and healthful living established through opportunities for discussion and practice.
5. Mental health maintained by group status, teacher respect and stimulating experiences in expression and co-operation.¹¹⁵

Mental health is an essential part of the courses in Health and Personal Development. A 1949 statement for a course in personal growth (Grade IX) indicates that a student must be well adjusted so that:

- (a) he appreciates the value of a good appearance,
- (b) he conforms to common school practices and possesses good morals,
- (c) he attracts and holds friends,
- (d) he is interested in wholesome recreation,

¹¹⁴Ibid., p. 10.

¹¹⁵Bulletin II, Elementary School, 1949, p. 34.

- (e) he is interested in many things,
- (f) he develops his talents and capacities,
- (g) he is happy,
- (h) he accepts praise and criticism without emotional upset,
- (i) he is free from excessive worry,
- (j) he controls his feeling when annoyed.¹¹⁶

Every pupil should--

1. Show evidence of growth in the acquirement of those ideals and habits which go to make up the desirable behaviour. In the concrete situations of school-life the child's daily relationships with his fellows should indicate that, in gradually increasing measure, he admires and possesses qualities such as truthfulness, fairness, sense of responsibility, helpfulness, moral courage and gentleness.¹¹⁷

This course is based on the assumption that high school students have the right to be furnished by the school with information regarding vocations and vocational prospects, and the right also to have counsel and guidance from the school in adjusting themselves and their school programme to their vocational interests. It is assumed, further, that the school likewise has the right to require from each student an inventory of his capacities, abilities and resources of personality and of character, and should encourage the student to maintain high standards of personal efficiency, and of civic and moral responsibility.¹¹⁸

Morality and Good Character

The school is responsible for the students' physical, social and intellectual development, as well as for vocational guidance; but the chief purpose of education is the building of moral stature. Mere assent to platitudes and seemingly impractical ideals is valueless. Every effort should be made to have pupils establish convictions based upon reasoned conclusions.

Direct instruction must seek to instil self-control, self-reliance, reliability, honesty, fair-play, co-operativeness, clean-mindedness, kindness, loyalty, considerateness and truthfulness.

To help the students to develop right habits and high ideals, and learn to form right judgments, the problem-solving method is

¹¹⁶A Course in Personal Growth for Grade Nine, 1949, p. 5.

¹¹⁷Programme of Studies for the Elementary School, 1936, p. 41.

¹¹⁸Programme of Studies for the High School, Bulletin III, p. 54.
(Comments introductory to the course on Vocations and Guidance.)

best. After the problem has been presented to the class, the students should be encouraged to express their views freely, and informally.¹¹⁹

Character and Character Building.

What is character? Character and personality.

Some qualities in which intellect and character are combined--charm, taste, tact, judgment, wisdom.

Good character leads to good acts.

Character and will. Character and happiness.

How our emotions affect our character.

Character and religion--the Christian character.

Character and school activities.

Six ideals of conduct.¹²⁰

Every effort to be of consequence must affect individuals in some concrete understandable way. Schools and teachers cannot escape sharing the responsibility for implementing a finer pattern of human relationships. Our activity program should be directed to that end. The children in our elementary classrooms are in a period of impressionable growth, and they are living in a social situation that is controllable and yet vitally important and realistic to them. The task is not to devise the basic tenets of better personal and social living. Those have been stated long ago. A great Teacher summarized them when He said, "Whatsoever ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so unto them," and "Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself." A less direct way of saying the same thing is to state that every man must first develop, and then act in accordance with a socialized personal conscience.¹²¹

Social Behavior

For some years our teacher-training and curriculum services have extended their efforts to provide, through teacher graduates and courses of study, for school experiences that can meet the criteria of effective understanding and participation in democratic social living. The activity program in our schools has taken the unique title of "enterprise education". It is based essentially upon the unit organization of subject matter and upon those co-operative teacher-pupil techniques that have proven sound in theory and in practice. This revision maintains the activity program as a desirable educative experience for our pupils. Enterprise education is considered effective because it:

1. Delineates some significant social theme or situation.

¹¹⁹Programme of Studies for the High School, Bulletin II, 1946, p. 58. (Underlining not in the original.)

¹²⁰Ibid., p. 43. (Part of the course outline for Psychology.)

¹²¹Bulletin 2, Elementary School, 1949, p. 13.

2. Touches upon and promotes the natural interests of children.
3. Provides varied opportunities for the satisfaction of basic personality needs, intellectual, aesthetic, spiritual and social.
4. Offers individual and group practice with teacher guidance in problem solving, and in learning situations with all related skills that go to make such situations effective.
5. Contributes to the integration of a pattern of values that is harmonious with democratic tradition and with Christian ethics.¹²²

[The school's] social aspects are continually increasing. So while the school seeks to develop to the highest degree of useful effectiveness the many abilities which the individual child possesses, it must have due regard for the effect of these abilities on others. A school organized so that the child's whole performance is individual, with competition and invidious comparisons made prominent, gives little opportunity for the development of social qualities that are basic to the functioning of a democratic society. It is essential that group activity, group planning, group responsibility, group evaluation and group control have a prominent place.¹²³

Comfort and happiness for himself and others, for himself through others, is the common purpose of the individual's action. This general and ultimate goal is reached through the attainment of an infinite number of small immediate purposes towards which his daily activities are directed. For success, the first requirement is that he should choose from among these small immediate objectives those that are right for him, that is, those the attainment of which will unify and enrich his personality, increasing his satisfaction in himself and in his relationship to others and so moving him towards the ultimate goal of happy social living.¹²⁴

The course in Health and Personal Development, despite its worthy objectives, continues to provide difficulties in classroom instruction. Since the course attempts to meet needs in the broad field of personal and social adjustment, the outcomes and the methods of achieving these outcomes are, of necessity, much more intangible than those of content courses. Teachers who are sensitive to the personal and social needs of high school youth and who are creative in using the resources of the school to meet these needs are doing outstanding work.¹²⁵

¹²²Ibid., p. 14.

¹²³Programme of Studies for the Elementary School, 1942, p. 24.

¹²⁴Dickie, op. cit., p. 62.

¹²⁵Annual Report, etc., 1955, p. 36.

Preparation For Home and Family Life

WHAT IS THE FUNCTION OF THE FAMILY IN MODERN SOCIETY?

The family is the most intimate and familiar of the social groups. We are all members of a family and the associations we form within the family circle are the most influential and lasting in our whole lives. The purpose of the family is the rearing of children which includes their training in social living as members of a social group. The child is not only to be fed, clothed and sheltered but is also to receive an education which will develop him as an individual with a sense of responsibility towards himself and society. He must particularly learn to appreciate the importance of the institutions which are the foundation of Canadian democracy.

Within the family circle, under the guidance of our parents, our personalities develop and take shape. Our manners, morals, attitudes, aspirations and expectations are moulded by the family influence. We all know that our family is responsible for our conduct. The baseball from Billy Logan's bat that crashes through Mrs. Larson's window, compels Mr. Logan to reach down in his pocket for the price of a pane of glass. The ill-mannered child brings disgrace on the family just as the good behavior and successes of the child bring credit to the family. The family is often the cultural agent supplying the encouragement and the means for the child to learn to play a musical instrument, to sing, to dance, to paint, to read good books, and to learn numerous hobbies and sports.¹²⁶

Growth in Family Living.

Each Alberta youth must learn to appreciate the unique and indispensable place in society played by the home and family and especially the influence of the family unit upon right thinking in connection with morals, institutions, and the current issues of democratic living. The school should assist him to achieve a better understanding and appreciation of:

- i. The responsibilities and privileges of the members of the family group;
- ii. The home as a democratic institution;
- iii. The conditions essential to successful family life;
- iv. The opportunities for enjoyment at home;
- v. The functions and responsibilities of parents;
- vi. The relationship of the family to its neighbors and the community.¹²⁷

¹²⁶Social Studies in Grade Nine, 1948, p. 6.

¹²⁷Curriculum Guide for Alberta Secondary Schools, 1950, p. 16.

Development of Citizenship

While the term "democracy" is used occasionally in publications prior to 1936, it becomes almost a sacred word in the period 1936-63. Publication after publication stresses the values of democracy, the duties of a citizen in a democracy, and the need of the school to be as "democratic" as possible in order to train pupils for life in a democracy.¹²⁸ The true "democrat" is the good citizen.

The work of developing each child's special talents for use in the democratic state, of teaching him to understand the importance of his personality and the value of the contribution that he is capable of making to the group, of training him to act individually as well as co-operatively in the democratic way, this work can and should be begun in the first year, and continued systematically to the last year, of the child's school life. To do this work, to perform this three-in-one task assigned to it by modern society, is the purpose of the modern school.¹²⁹

. . . Each enterprise provides, also, innumerable individual purposes. To the attainment of these, the pupil is advised and helped to apply the same procedure that he has used successfully in solving the group problem. In this way, he learns to attack his individual purposes intelligently. At the same time he becomes familiar with, and, gradually, skilled in the use of, the tools of democracy: speech, discussion, majority and minority behaviour, the ability to criticize ideas, the ability to form an opinion based on information, the ability to plan and to act co-operatively, a sense of individual responsibility for the public welfare.¹³⁰

The intermediate school must accept responsibility for completing the education of many young citizens. It should, therefore, inculcate loyalty to the democratic ideal, and exemplify in its programme, procedures and government, the value and efficacy of that ideal. It should continue the programme, begun in the elementary school, of teaching the pupil how to examine both sides of a question, how and where to find facts, and how to use the evidence of authorities in reaching a conclusion. It should preserve and foster the spirit of personal freedom, evoked in the elementary school by the

¹²⁸In the Annual Report, etc., 1940, p. 18, there is even the suggestion that a certain kind of final examination is more "democratic" than another.

¹²⁹Dickie, op. cit., p. 56.

¹³⁰Ibid., p. 95.

enterprise procedure.¹³¹

Growth Toward Competence in Citizenship

Each Alberta youth must be brought gradually to a realization of his position and responsibilities in the school, community, province, nation, and finally in the community of nations. The school should guide him in:

- i. Acquiring insight into the historical background of contemporary society;
- ii. Developing competence in meeting, and attempting to solve, public problems and issues which citizens are required to encounter and on which they must take action;
- iii. Developing competence in political action at the school, community, national, and world levels;
- iv. Developing consumer competence;
- v. Developing democratic attitudes and behavior in all social situations;
- vi. Establishing loyalty to the ideals of democracy and acquiring an appreciation of his community, the province and the nation.¹³²

The following resolution, moved by Mr. McDougall and Dr. Sansom, was accepted by the Conference of Normal School Instructors:

Whereas, modern education advocates that teachers take a more active part in community leadership through the medium of local organizations for the purpose of inculcating the ideals of democracy; and Whereas, young teachers need special preparation in order to assume effectively such a responsibility;

Therefore be it resolved, that each Normal School shall organize a bimonthly forum in which students and staff shall discuss the meaning and problems of democracy, attendance at such forum to be required.¹³³

It should be understood that over the years school programs were not overly devoted to the study of the values of democracy. In Grades VII-XII, particularly, many countries and forms of government were studied (and are studied). The Grade IX Social Studies course with its emphasis upon the background of our culture, and the Grade XII Social Studies course

¹³¹Programme of Studies for the Intermediate School, 1937, p. 7.

¹³²Curriculum Guide for Alberta Secondary Schools, 1950, p. 6.
(Underlining not in the original.)

¹³³Annual Report, etc., 1941, p. 37.

in international relations, gave pupils more than a "parochial" preparation for citizenship.

One might comment about the personal and social aims listed in the preceding pages. A pupil evidently should come to be the following kind of person:

Industrious	Fair	Creative
Resourceful	Co-operative	Loyal
Helpful	Truthful	Inquisitive
Responsible	Courteous	Obedient
Open-minded	Considerate	Self-sacrificing
Critical	Kind	Sympathetic
Curious	Cheerful	Democratic
Thoughtful	Tolerant	Reverent

This list bears a remarkable resemblance to lists compiled for other periods of Alberta's educational history. It also seems to embody all of those qualities which reputedly abound in every good member of the middle class.

III. EMPHASIS AMONG AIMS

All of the major aims of 1936-63 have been detailed in Section II of this chapter. If there is any one aim that receives priority or emphasis in at least one part of this era (1936-45) it is the social aim of learning to live and work well with others. It is not that this aim is most important in itself, but that it is through the carefully organized activities of "social situations" in the school that pupils receive stimulation and opportunity for intellectual excellence, for development

of good mental health, for growth in character and morality, and for development as good citizens in a democracy. Aims of 1936-45 might be listed as follows:

Social adjustment	Physical health
Character and morality	Vocational preparation
Good mental health	Preparation for leisure
Good citizenship	Aesthetic development
Intellectual development	Training for family life. ¹³⁴

After 1945 there was an addition to the list of major aims, and a re-interpretation of the relationships of the aims to each other. These points may best be understood if it is remembered that one of the ever-recurring arguments in education--as in political science, sociology and psychology--is that of the relative position of the individual and of the group in society. The argument is not one of a "black" versus a "white" position, but of the amount of attention to be devoted to the development of the individual as compared with the amount of attention to what might be called "social adjustment." If one is permitted to make crude value judgments by way of using percentages, he might estimate that 1936-45 Departmental documents gave evidence of a 45 percent to 55 percent balance between the individual and the social, while in 1945-63 there was a 55 percent to 45 percent balance. This last estimate is given some support in a 1950 statement of aims for the secondary school. Four major purposes of schooling are given:

¹³⁴This is the analysis made by the author of this study. It is based on a consideration of dozens of Departmental documents, and is not to be found as a separate list in any Departmental statement.

1. Personal Development
2. Growth in Family Living
3. Growth Toward Competence in Citizenship
4. Occupational Preparation¹³⁵

In a statement printed by the W. J. Gage Company, Toronto, Mr. M. L. Watts, Director of Curriculum, indicated that first place in the above list was deliberately given to personal development in order to stress the concepts of the worth and freedom of the individual. (The order of the other three purposes appears to have no particular significance.) Mr. Watts also indicated that in Bulletin II for the Elementary School, 1949, seven basic attitudes are given; of these, four refer primarily to individual development. Too, the junior and senior high school English programs were organized to provide for an emphasis on personal development. It is indicated that the individual is not to be subordinated to man-made institutions and organizations; although each person should serve society and make proper adjustment to his environment, he should maintain his integrity and develop his potentialities as an individual. The Health and Personal Development courses introduced in general in 1952, were combinations of the old health course (revised) and a good homeroom guidance course. They could also be regarded "as a modern counterpart of the old character education program."¹³⁶ Mr. Watts' statement closes

¹³⁵Curriculum Guide for Alberta Secondary Schools, 1950, pp. 15ff. These four purposes subsume under one heading or another the ten aims listed above, plus an aim concerning religion.

¹³⁶Morrison Watts, "Character Education in the Secondary Schools of Alberta," Education, II, pp. 81-94.

with an Albert Schweitzer quotation that is basic to the above discussion:

Civilization can only revive when there shall come into being in a number of individuals a new tone of mind independent of the one prevalent among the crowd and in opposition to it, a tone of mind which will gradually win influence over the collective one, and in the end determine its character. It is only an ethical movement which can rescue us from the slough of barbarism, and the ethical comes into existence only in individuals.

The final decision as to what the future of a society shall be depends not on how near its organization is to perfection, but on the degrees of worthiness in its individual members.

Development of the individual, then, is important, and particularly so with respect to character building. According to 1945-63 statements, the development should be rooted not just in recognition of what good character means to society, but should be established at a more fundamental level in religion (and preferably, in Christianity).

The list of aims for 1945-63 would consist of the 1936-45 list with the addition of the aim of giving pupils some religious knowledge and development. The 1945-63 list needs also to be viewed with the perspective given by the above discussion concerning the importance of the individual.

IV. WHO SHOULD BE EDUCATED?

If one asks the question, "Who should be educated?" the answer of educational authorities from 1885 forward has been, "As many students as possible, and to the high school level if possible." This answer is not changed at all in 1936-63, for in this period the intentions of the past were carried forward and given greater effect.

Departmental concern for high schooling took a new turn in 1935-36. At that time the Government took action to organize most of the thousands

of small school districts in the province into about sixty units called "school divisions." One of the major purposes of such an organization was the better provision of high school services. Shortly thereafter, there began a movement within divisions to centralize many schools at a few locations, and later to centralize a number of high schools at a few locations. In conjunction with both of these new forms of organization there sprang up many school dormitories for secondary school students.¹³⁷ Through its grant regulations, the Department of Education encouraged centralization, vaning of pupils, and dormitories.

An important aspect of the "New Education" of 1936-45 was the desire on the part of Departmental officials to meet individual differences in the classroom. The enterprise, it was thought, would provide a wide range of tasks for the many interests and abilities of students. In the intermediate school there was specific provision made in course outlines for minimum essentials for all pupils and "enrichment exercises for the brighter ones."¹³⁸ The exploratory courses of the intermediate program were designed to meet special interests. The high school "core and elective" system provided not only a great variety of courses, but also courses at different levels in such subjects as Mathematics and Science.

The Department continued to make regular grants for the education of "slow" or sub-normal children. By the early 1950's there also were

¹³⁷With better roads and better school buses the need for dormitories decreased. By 1960 there were only a few dormitories still in existence. (For example, Grande Prairie, Athabasca.)

¹³⁸For example, Programme of Studies for the Intermediate School, 1937, p. 95 (General Science). See also p. 95 (Social Studies). See the Annual Report, etc., 1939, p. 25 for reports of work in Normal Practice schools for "top" and "bottom" students.

Departmental tuition grants to help educate mentally retarded children in private schools for retarded children; by the 1960's the Department extended capital assistance to the building of such schools.

By the 1960's some school systems were providing "pre-employment" classes in junior high or senior high school for those pupils who had not made normal progress in school and who needed some special training before they sought semi-skilled or even un-skilled jobs. Whether these pupils had actually passed into junior or senior high school grades has made no difference to the Department of Education; as long as the school system makes provision for these pupils, the Department issues its regular grants.

Correspondence school work for high school students was greatly extended by 1940. The Department took over such work as had been carried on by private correspondence schools. In all grades, those who were abroad, isolated, ill, over-age, or too poor to attend school, were given service. Correspondence school work was also carried on in hospitals, prisons and detention homes.

Blind and deaf children continued to be offered schooling outside Alberta at Departmental expense. In November, 1955, however, a School for the Deaf was opened at Edmonton and deaf pupils no longer had to go to schools in other provinces. Other kinds of classes were developed through the 1940's, 1950's and 1960's. The 1962 Annual Report shows the following:

The following table summarizes special classes for which Departmental grants were paid:

School Board	Number and Types of Classes	Enrolment
Bowness S.D. No. 4590	2 opportunity classes	26
Calgary S.D. No. 19	15 opportunity classes	215
	1 sight-saving class	9
	2 speech and hearing classes	25
	2 cerebral palsy classes	22
	1 rehabilitation class	11
Calgary R.C. S.D. No. 1	3 opportunity classes	31
Drumheller S.D. No. 30	1 opportunity class	10
Edmonton S.D. No. 7.	17 opportunity classes	228
	2 adaptation classes	23
	2 sight-saving classes	22
	3 hospital and homebound classes	33
	3 hearing conservation classes	29
	4 cerebral palsy classes	22
Edmonton R.C. S.D. No. 7	4 opportunity classes	53
Fairview S.D. No. 50	1 opportunity class	8
Grande Prairie S.D. No. 2357	1 opportunity class	11
Jasper Place R.C. S.D. No. 45	1 opportunity class	14
Lethbridge S.D. No. 51	3 opportunity classes	45
Lethbridge R.C. S.D. No. 9	1 opportunity class	10
Medicine Hat S.D. No. 76	4 opportunity classes	42
Medicine Hat R.C. S.D. No. 21	1 opportunity class	11
Mountain View County No. 17	2 opportunity classes	23
Red Deer S.D. No. 104	2 opportunity classes	29
St. Albert S.D. No. 3	1 opportunity class	13
Stony Plain S.D. No. 23	1 opportunity class	9
St. Paul S.D. No. 2228	1 opportunity class	14
Strathcona County No. 20	1 opportunity class	16
Sturgeon County No. 15	1 opportunity class	12
Three Hills S.D. No. 60	1 opportunity class	8
Vegreville S.D. No. 19	1 opportunity class	6
Wainwright S.D. No. 32	1 opportunity class	13
West Jasper Place S.D. No. 4679	2 opportunity classes	31
Westlock S.D. No. 37	1 opportunity class	11 ¹³⁹

An event of genuine significance took place in 1961 when the

¹³⁹Annual Report, etc., 1962, p. 79.

Northland School Division was formed. The Division served isolated pupils, particularly Métis. Since the expenses of the Division were met almost wholly from provincial revenue, the new unit had an official trustee in the person of Dr. J. W. Chalmers, Director of School Administration.

This service by the provincial government meant that the resources of society in general were placed behind the education of Métis pupils. Since 1961, these young people in their remote areas have had immeasurably better provision in buildings, equipment, teachers and school administration and supervision. In 1963 the Northland Division opened a large vocational high school at Grouard, and now brings young people to that school from all over Northern Alberta. Also, since 1961 many other districts have joined the Northland Division, so that this unit no longer has as high a proportion of Métis students as it had at its inception.

V. THE NATURE OF SOCIETY

In 1936 Alberta was still a province primarily rural rather than urban, agricultural rather than industrial. Normal School training was still aimed at preparing teachers for work in multi-grade classrooms outside of the cities and larger towns. The economy still functioned in a setting primarily capitalistic in nature, and a political structure considered to be democratic.

As the 1922-36 chapter has indicated, however, Alberta was caught in a severe economic depression in the 1930's. This depression lasted into the early years of the Second World War, 1939-45. A notable reaction to these two events, depression and war, comes to us from the pen of the Director of Technical Education, Mr. W. G. Carpenter:

The year 1940 has been one of readjustment in plans and material involved in the technical education programme of the Province. The war in which Canada finds itself is primarily one of machines and equipment. The enemy, dominated by a determination to revenge, has equipped itself with unparalleled mechanical weapons designed to attain a rapid decision. This, of necessity, has to be matched and excelled in the shortest possible time. All other interests are compelled to give way to the dominant primary interest of resisting the foe and bringing about a peace in which the freedom of man might continue to evolve. It has become the duty of every Canadian to give himself without restraint to the end of winning the war.

The man-power of the nation was ill-prepared to enter so strenuous an activity as war. The will to peace was so strong among the people that even ordinary precautions were at a low ebb. The cadet system was practically abolished, voluntary enlistments in military training units were few, and meagre stores of war equipment were prepared. Educational programmes were academic in their outlook. Opportunities for gainful work for youth were few. The spirit of the people was at a low state of vitality as a result of the long period of depression. Uneasiness was rampant. Dissension and discord were common. And the war broke, and the demand for trained men became stupendous. Great plans came into existence to train men to become militarily efficient. Enormous factories were erected. Frantic efforts were made for materials, machines and men with which to provide the equipment for war--aeroplanes, tanks, guns, ammunition. This equipment has to be operated by men, maintained by men and replaced by men, the majority of whom, as young men, have to be trained.¹⁴⁰

Other writers speak of society as becoming more complex, and of the need to prepare youth to live in a changing world.¹⁴¹ Three of the best indications of how Alberta changed through war and then also through the commercial growth of oil and chemical development of the 1940's and 1950's are the rural to urban shift in population that took place in this province from 1940 to 1960, the policy of the Faculty of Education in training "teachers" (not simply "teachers for rural schools"), and the beginning of the vocational training program of 1963. This latter program

¹⁴⁰ Annual Report, etc., 1940, p. 73.

¹⁴¹ Annual Report, etc., 1941, p. 12; Annual Report, etc., 1944, p.

had been tried in principle from 1914 to 1936 and had not, except for business education, been a success. In 1963 Alberta was ready for the program because the Alberta (and Canadian) economy really demanded its graduates.

The great political changes that took place in Alberta and Canada in 1936-63 are not recorded in Departmental documents (apart from Social Studies course outlines) and are thus not commented upon by Departmental officials. It was, of course, not their function to comment upon the rise of radical parties, the actions of governments with respect to social services, or the actions of governments in becoming the owners of business which had normally been held by private enterprise.

VI. THE FORM OF THE SCHOOL

Throughout the period of 1936-63 it is apparent that the school is regarded not as a miniature world but as a community within the larger social community, a place in which students are given development of their various abilities in preparation for adult life. This community notion is given in various documents:

1. "The success of the school depends upon the contribution of all the members. The teacher is the guide of this community."¹⁴²
2. "The modern rural school is, indeed, a community centre, where children live together during school hours, working at a variety of interesting things."¹⁴³
3. "The junior high school is a small community of similar

¹⁴²Programme of Studies for the Elementary School, 1936, p. 112.

¹⁴³Annual Report, etc., 1941, p. 14.

pattern to the large community of which it is a part. . . ."144

The function of this small "community," the school, is also indicated:

1. "The object of our educational system is to develop in the pupils constructive patterns of democratic social behavior."145
2. "The function of education is to fit the child to take his place and play his part in society. . . .The fact that he is one of a group. . .will constantly create situations akin to those to be faced in later life as a citizen i.e., the need for co-operation, the advantages of successful endeavor ."146
3. "[The junior high school] must provide for further development and integration of the basic skills and learnings acquired in the elementary grades. It must present opportunities for exploring new subjects according to special interests."147

It was recognized that there were obvious limitations upon children's freedom in the school.¹⁴⁸ The enterprise was seen as a "disciplinary process" (in the intellectual as much as the behavioral sense). Students were expected to develop self-discipline, and respect for the school and its work.¹⁴⁹ And as the Junior High School Handbook of 1955 said (p. 29) of student government as an extra-curricular activity, students should work "under teacher guidance and within limitations."

¹⁴⁴Junior High School Handbook, 1955, p. 29.

¹⁴⁵Dickie, op. cit., pp. 414-415.

¹⁴⁶Programme of Studies for the Elementary School, 1936, p. 109.

¹⁴⁷Junior High School Handbook, 1955, p. 6.

¹⁴⁸In The Enterprise, Dr. Donald Dickie spoke plainly about children needing guidance toward intelligent action, as well as assistance in acquiring knowledge and skills (p. 78).

¹⁴⁹Annual Report, etc., 1941, p. 14.

There is not anywhere in any publication of 1936-45 or 1945-63 the slightest hint that children were to be allowed to "run" the school; or that the teacher was expected to countenance foolish, or pointless, or crude behavior; or that the teacher should do anything other than expect time to be well used in the highest academic and social achievement of which students were capable.

VII. THE SCHOOL AND SOCIAL CHANGE

The role of the school in social change continued to be stated in general and conservative terms.

The dominant purpose of education, embracing its collective aims is now as ever the transmission of social culture from one generation to the next. Education secures social stability and solidarity, and at the same time provides for social progress. . . .The educational program. . .will facilitate social progress by stressing the importance of problem-solving, of thinking that is free from prejudice or emotion, and of open-minded discussion.¹⁵⁰

Our schools have followed in this technological culture pattern without noticeable protestation. Some people may argue that the role of the school is to realize rather than to initiate, that schoolmen must essentially be the masons rather than the architects of the future. This view tends to curtail and devalue the actual contribution education can make. Certainly educators should not aim to be the steering committee for society. But neither should they be content merely to implement the directives originating from another, and perhaps no more competent, section of society. The effectiveness of our school depends upon the role it accepts within Canadian society and upon the pressures it can exert within that society for desirable growth and correction. It can, through proper channels, influence contemporary thought and action. More important is the influence it can exert upon future thought and action by the attitudes it can foster among the developing personalities of the students. . . .Lewis Mumford is concerned with the same problem as it appears in general society when he writes:

'The materialist creed by which a large part of humanity has sought to live during the last few centuries confused the needs of

¹⁵⁰Programme of Studies for the Intermediate School, 1937, pp. 5-6.

survival with the needs of fulfillment; whereas man's life requires both. For survival, the physiological needs are uppermost; and the most imperative, obviously, are the needs for air and water: then food and shelter against extremes of temperature, and so by degrees one passes to those social needs for communication and co-operation that never wholly limit themselves to life-preservation in the narrow sense. . . .'

'In terms of life-fulfillment, however, this ascending scale of needs, from bare physical life to social stimulus and personal growth, must be reversed. The most important needs from the standpoint of life-fulfillment are those that foster spiritual activity and promise spiritual growth: the needs for order, continuity, meaning, value, purpose and design--needs out of which language and poesy and music and science and art and religion have grown. The deepest, the most organic, of these higher needs is that for love: all the stronger because it is rooted in survival.'¹⁵¹

A reading of the above statements certainly reveals no mandate for teachers to influence pupils strongly toward any particular political, economic, or social school of thought.¹⁵² It is true, however, that the last quotation (1949) encourages teachers to offset the ideas of a technological and materialistic culture with ideas that are related to "spiritual growth." This quotation is not amplified further in this particular publication, but can probably be related to the 1945-63 context of religion (and particularly Christianity) which Departmental publications consider desirable. It should be added that the statements about religion are not followed in any place by specific political, economic or social reforms that are seen to flow logically from a religious (or Christian) point of view.

¹⁵¹Bulletin I, Foundations of Education, 1949, p. 7.

¹⁵²As has been observed, democracy is taken for granted as the form of political organization which is most desirable.

VIII. EDUCATIONAL IDEAS: A LABEL

The educational ideas of 1936-45 are usually spoken of as involving the "New Education", or the "activity program", or the "experience curriculum", or "progressive education". All of these terms are used in Departmental publications. Probably the best known term is "progressive education". For example, the Department and the Alberta Teachers' Association brought to Alberta each year a number of teachers' convention speakers from The Progressive Education Association (in the United States).

The term "progressive" is used in Departmental documents with at least three meanings. Mr. G. F. McNally used "progressive" in its broadest, most general, and most commonly accepted sense when he wrote the following to the Minister of Education in 1939:

A PROGRESSIVE SYSTEM

In this review I have attempted to show that Alberta has a modern and progressive system of education. In the rewriting of the curriculum the needs of all children have been kept in mind, especially those neglected all too long. Examinations have been devised which will do more than test the measure of retention of memorized material. A modern system of teacher-education has been adopted with greatly increased emphasis on actual practice. Rural school administration has been reorganized in accordance with the recommendations of educational specialists. Library and health services have been greatly extended. Supervision has taken the place of inspection. A pension scheme for teachers has been enacted. The problem of placement and stability of tenure in the case of teachers has been solved. A comprehensive scheme for the guidance, training and placement of youth after school has been successfully launched. The needs of pupils in isolated areas who are unable to take advantage of class attendance are met by carefully administered courses by correspondence. More children are getting more hours of schooling per week. A revised Grants Act is in preparation. Under its terms the state will spend its money in direct relationship to the need of the community.

I think it can be fairly said that it is a modern and progressive

system.¹⁵³

"Progressive" in this statement is largely associated with the general concept of improving previous conditions; it is only lightly associated with a special set of ideas known as "progressivism."

On the other hand, Dr. D. J. Dickie used the word "progressive", in one instance at least, with much narrower intent. In speaking of a teacher who analyses pupils' difficulties carefully, and then teaches at the point of difficulty or error, Dr. Dickie called this teacher "progressive". In any other era, this teacher would simply have been called a "good" teacher.¹⁵⁴

The "progressive" school is usually associated with the ideas given in the following quotations, the first from Dr. D. J. Dickie, and the second from Dr. H. C. Newland:

Between these two extremes stand an increasing number of "progressive" schools. These are educational systems, schools, and teachers who are trying to face the realities of the educational situation in a practical way. They seek to understand, on the one hand, what modern society demands of its incoming members, and, on the other, what part the school can play in preparing the young to meet those demands. They believe that all but a very few specially situated or specially talented children need training in social behaviour in order to enable them to adjust themselves satisfactorily to the complexities of modern life; that this social training should be the principal and central aspect of education, the development of individual talents and the acquisition of skills being best secured in connection with, and as a part of, the child's general social development. They understand that the mind is not a particular part of the body, but a power, or one of a number of ways the individual has of using his power; that the child's powers are existent, but immature, and that they grow towards maturity by exercise; and, finally, that it is the general function of education to provide for the pupil stimulating opportunities for, and guidance in, the profitable exercise of his powers. As training in social behaviour is new as an immediate

¹⁵³Annual Report, etc., 1939, p. 13. ¹⁵⁴Dickie, op. cit., p. 106.

and central purpose in education, the teaching techniques developed by the formal and ultra-activity schools are, naturally, inadequate for its attainment. Progressive schools, therefore, are seeking by experiment, and with many mistakes and back-slidings, to devise a new procedure that will combine the valid practices of the older methods with new devices designed to provide for the achievement of this larger purpose. One of these "progressive experiments" is described in the following pages.¹⁵⁵

A New Type of Programme for the Elementary School.

The revised Programme for the Elementary School is based on a fundamental and well-established principle of psychology concerning the way in which human beings actually learn. Whether adults or children, they will learn only when they are engaged in some purposeful activity which they understand and appreciate, and consider to be worth while. In other words, children learn to do by doing, not something that the teacher tells them to do, but something that they themselves want to do because it has a purpose and meaning and value for them. To this basic "activity" principle, three supplementary principles may be added:

First: Pupils learn through activities to work with others, and to co-operate with others in determining a common purpose and achieving that purpose. They pool their resources and share their experience. Individual pupils do not strive to get ahead of everybody else without regard to consequences, or to learn by themselves without interest in the welfare of the group. Co-operation, rather than competition, is the key-note of group activity.

Second: A large and important part of what pupils learn is not to be found in books. They live in an atmosphere of good human relationships; they acquire desirable social attitudes and understandings; they learn to control their feelings and emotions; they grow physically, emotionally and spiritually, as well as mentally. In the process of "growing up" they are becoming wholesome persons; and their growth is total, not partial.

Third: The school programme must take account of the fact that no two pupils are exactly alike. The pupils differ in physique, appearance, aptitudes, abilities and interests. School activities must provide a situation in which every child can learn; in which every child has an opportunity to express himself and to make his own appropriate contribution to the work of the group. Different pupils may do different things; but each will be held responsible by the group for what he is able and willing to undertake.¹⁵⁶

After 1945 the terms "progressive", "progressive education", the

¹⁵⁵ Ibid., pp. 80-81.

¹⁵⁶ Annual Report, etc., 1941, pp. 12-13.

"New Education" and the "activity program" no longer are used. The "Enterprise" is the term given to the integrated materials of the Social Studies. "Activity" is mentioned as a part of "parallel activities" (science, health) only. There is no label that the Department uses to describe the set of ideas to be found in public education from 1945-63. Technically speaking, then, Alberta did not have "progressive education" after 1945.¹⁵⁷ It did have the enterprise system in revised form, and it had other features outlined in the various sections of this chapter (e.g., under Curriculum, Promotion Policy, etc.), but these are given no all-inclusive term which could be used as a label.

IX. BASIC PHILOSOPHY: A LABEL

In the "Aims for the School" in this chapter there was discussed the question of religious knowledge and development. In that discussion it was indicated that there was apparently some uncertainty during 1936-45 about the place of religion in the curriculum. This uncertainty is found also when one searches behind educational ideas for some one underlying philosophy, for there seem to be at least two voices talking at the same time. There is the faint and far-off voice of the Christian idealist. And there is apparently the voice of the "scientific",

¹⁵⁷The Alberta form of progressive education has to be distinguished from what might have been "progressive" elsewhere, or from what various critics have assumed to be true of progressive education in different Canadian provinces, including Alberta. For example, Dr. Hilda Neatby in So Little For the Mind, asserts that progressive education as found in Canada is anti-intellectual, anti-cultural, and amoral. The evidence presented in this chapter shows Dr. Neatby to be wrong on all three points as far as Alberta is concerned.

"rationalistic" pragmatist.¹⁵⁸ The newer curriculum guides and school conditions, says the Annual Report of 1940 (p. 63), "facilitate the organization of the day's program for the use of social situations, pupil-group operations, and the establishment of learnings experimentally."¹⁵⁹ (Italics not in the original.) In 1941 the Normal School Instructors at their annual conference discussed the Fourth Year-book of the John Dewey Society, entitled "Teachers for Democracy."¹⁶⁰ And the bibliographies prepared in Departmental publications contain selected references from such authors as Rugg, Kilpatrick and Bode (none of whom were idealists), and from such groups as the John Dewey Society and the Progressive Education Association.

Some resolution of the above problem lies in a statement made in 1942. This statement asserts that the Activity Movement grew out of various influences, including the work of Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Froebel, Montessori, and John Dewey; and that the Alberta version of the Activity Movement is a "home-grown" product. Dr. W. H. Swift, Deputy Minister of Education said in 1954 in connection with his years of work with the Department that he had heard little of Dewey. "I do not believe there has been any Dewey cult. There is certainly not now."¹⁶¹ One is forced to conclude that during 1936-45 there were various educational ideas which were at times expressed in the language of the pragmatist, but which were

¹⁵⁸Nothing prevents a Christian, of course, from being scientific and rational.

¹⁵⁹Annual Report, etc., 1940, p. 63. The underlined clause is typical of the language used by the experimentalists or pragmatists.

¹⁶⁰Annual Report, etc., 1941, p. 35.

¹⁶¹W. H. Swift, "Pendulum or Synthesis," The Alberta School Trustee, Vol. 24, No. 3 (March, 1954), p. 9.

never linked directly to pragmatism as a philosophy, or reconciled with Christian idealism. Those who had grown the Alberta product were not particularly concerned about logic and consistency. It might be fairer and more accurate to say, however, that Departmental publications were written by different people, and that these people put into Annual Reports and curriculum guides something of the language and structure of their own basic philosophies. It is obvious that these philosophies differ--Dr. H. C. Newland and Dr. D. J. Dickie, for instance, were really quite remote from each other, although they agreed on many educational ideas.

After 1945 there is no doubt that Christian idealism was to be regarded as the basic philosophy. For example, Bulletin I, Foundations of Education, 1949 was edited so that it did not support naturalism or even appear to support it.¹⁶² Also available is all of the other evidence that was detailed in "The Aims for the School." After 1950, there was a withdrawal to a position of idealism, since Departmental publications speak of the necessity of a student's philosophy being grounded in religion. The aims of the school were supposed to be compatible with the major ideas found in Christianity and democracy.

X. CHANGE AND THE REASONS FOR CHANGE

The changes of 1936 and the years immediately following were designed to produce a better kind of school than the old "traditional"

¹⁶²Naturalism is here equated with "naturalistic pragmatism" or "materialism." This evidence is taken from a Departmental document in this author's files.

school, and a better kind of human being.¹⁶³ The reformers of 1936 looked at the traditional school and said that it had embraced poor policies and practices. Individual differences were neglected as were non-academic students. There was little provision for the aesthetic. Rural pupils had slight chance to attend high school. There was heavy emphasis upon drill, memorization, "discipline" and competition. There was too much verbalism and not enough concrete experience; too much formal "telling", and not enough questioning and discussing; too slavish an adherence to texts, and not enough wide reading; too rigid a prescription in course outlines, and not enough curriculum making in each classroom itself.¹⁶⁴

Some of the reformers saw the traditional school as an instrument of an old, obsolete society, and wanted a new school which would fit a new social order devoid of wars and depressions.¹⁶⁵ Such ideas came from various sources. For example, Mr. William Aberhart, Premier of the province of Alberta, and Minister of Education, indicated that teachers should be in the van of reform:

Premier Aberhart sounded a stirring call to the teachers of

¹⁶³In this author's opinion this essentially moral purpose of the school was not new.

¹⁶⁴It must be said that the critics tended to look at a few school practices and not at all of the policies and ideals of the Department of Education. As we have seen in previous chapters of this study, Departmental officials also criticized poor practices. As we have also seen, the critics did not take into account the very obvious provisions that the Department had been making for years in such areas as aesthetics and individual differences.

¹⁶⁵See a John Dewey quotation inserted by H. C. Newland at page 46 of the 1941 Annual Report. Also in the Annual Report, 1941, p. 20, Dr. Newland quotes Prime Minister King in his assertion that we need a new social order after the war.

Alberta to help bring in the new era. He urged them to get a clear vision of the time of change which the machine has brought about. He concluded by an earnest plea for teacher support in instructing the public as to the meaning of Social Credit.¹⁶⁶

A new era is being reached in politics and economics. Education must at least keep pace, if not lead the way. . . .¹⁶⁷

. . . The whole question of Rural Education in our province has seemed to me to be too inefficient, and for the most part, inadequate to meet the demands of a new and progressive era. I was fully convinced that in one way and one way only, the necessary broadened, diversified curriculum could be introduced. I refer to the enlarged unit of administration.¹⁶⁸

Dr. D. J. Dickie of the Normal Schools said that children have long had to be trained in individual development, social adjustment, and the fundamental intellectual skills. In the "old" tradition, the school gave pupils skills and knowledge, while the home and industry gave the other aspects of training. The world has now changed into such a complex industrial-technical-mass society entity that the center of gravity has shifted from the home to the community. Neither home nor industry now has time to do the complex job of vocational and social development. The school has to take over and train pupils in co-operative living through the apprenticeship system of the "enterprise."¹⁶⁹

The 1937 Programme of Studies for the Intermediate School (p. 5), asserted that the schools of today "have been compelled through social and economic developments to take over in large measure the educative

¹⁶⁶A report of a banquet held at the Corona Hotel, Edmonton, October, 17, 1935, The A.T.A. Magazine, Vol. XVI, No. 3 (October, 1935), p. 15.

¹⁶⁷From an address of William Aberhart, A.T.A. Magazine, Vol. XVI, No. 9 (May, 1936), p. 26.

¹⁶⁸Ibid., p. 27. ¹⁶⁹Dickie, op. cit., pp. 44ff.

functions of other social institutions."

Some support (although not complete support) is given to the above views by the fact that more and more parents wished their children to secure a high school education. This was particularly true of rural parents whose schools offered Grades I-VIII or perhaps Grades I-IX (in extreme cases Grades I-X or I-XI). High school offered the open door to a better living. Educators knew that if more pupils entered high school, there must be more provision made for the wider range of interests and abilities that high schools would encounter.¹⁷⁰

For one reason or another, then, the followers of the New Education wanted a different kind of school. They wanted to engage a greater proportion of children's energies than schools had ever done, and thus to secure greater intellectual, moral and social growth. To engage greater energies, the school had to interest pupils more deeply and hold this interest over long periods of time. Ideally, the school had to accommodate itself to and take advantage of various facts: that young people often like to work in groups as well as alone; that a child's investigations usually do not stay within the narrow boundaries of what scholars are pleased to call "subjects"; that children vary widely in abilities and interests; that a child's learnings are influenced greatly by his health, the conditions of his home, the atmosphere of his school, and

¹⁷⁰One of the purposes and great accomplishments of the newly formed school divisions was the extension of high school service to hundreds of young people who could not have secured it otherwise. Dr. G. F. McNally, Deputy Minister of Education, was vitally interested in this program.

the nature of the student body with which he is associated.¹⁷¹ These ideas about interest, "social situations",¹⁷² integration of subject matter and individual differences led in 1936 to the introduction of the following:

1. Social Studies courses in Grades I-XII.
2. The enterprise method in Grades I-VI.
3. A highly modified activity method in Grades VII-XII.
4. The reduction of time formally allotted to English ("Every teacher is now a teacher of English").
5. Less subject-matter prescription in most courses.
6. A reduced number of Departmental final examinations.
7. Types of examinations which attempted to test pupils more broadly than before.
8. A promotion policy which took into formal account a child's growth in factors other than the purely intellectual.
9. Guidance courses and services in the senior high school
10. Less emphasis upon competition and more upon co-operation.
11. Formal Departmental suggestions about extra-curricular activities.

¹⁷¹This last point is often condensed to read, "The whole child comes to school." This is a platitude, but it is no less profoundly true for all of that.

¹⁷²"Social situations" is a term used very loosely in 1936-45 publications. Authors seemed to forget that two or more people together anywhere--let alone in a classroom--constitute a social situation. They overlooked the obvious truth of the traditional school having had all kinds of social situations. What the 1936 authors apparently meant was that they favored particular kinds of social situations as opposed to other and less desirable kinds.

The 1936-45 main ideas also led to continued and expanded interest in the following:

1. Wide reading by pupils
2. Provision for individual differences (e.g., more high school courses for the non-matriculant).

In addition, the New Education's views were fundamental to the new aim of good mental health, and to a particular emphasis upon democracy within the old general aim of good citizenship.

The new 6-3-3 plan of dividing grades was thought to meet the needs of adolescents better. The junior high school was to provide a transition to the senior high, by offering a school within a school in which administrators could best supply exploratory courses, teacher specialization, and pupil guidance.

The normal curve system of allocating marks to Grade IX and XII Departmental examination papers is not necessarily connected with the ideas of the New Education, although the system was introduced at the same time. The new system had the simple advantages of being more logical, systematic, and fair.

In addition to all of the changes mentioned above, one must note that course materials were revised from time to time largely in order to keep them up to date. This is as true of 1936 as it is of the new biology, chemistry, physics and social studies materials of 1963.

After 1945 the Department kept some of the ideas of 1936-45, but instituted some substantial changes. These can be seen in the following table of comparisons. (Although some ideas are necessarily over-simplified to a degree, the statements retain essential truth.)

1936-45

1. The basic philosophy is not clear. Elements of both experimentalism and Christian idealism are present.
2. Religion is only incidentally studied in Social Studies.
3. The educational philosophy is the New Education, or Alberta's version of progressive education.
4. Each Grade I-VI teacher makes his Social Studies curriculum within very broad limits.
5. Spelling, Science and Health are a part of Social Studies enterprise work.
6. Promotion policy, emphasizing the moral and social growth of the pupil, assumes that under the New Education a child will learn academic materials very well.
7. Co-operation, rather than competition, is the keynote.
8. There is an emphasis upon "social situations", upon the child functioning efficiently as a member of a social group. The pupil develops happiness, good character and moderate emotionality through the conditioning processes of rational problem solving (individual as well as group).

1945-63

1. Christian idealism is clearly stated as the foundation. (1945) Idealism is preferred after 1950.
2. Religion becomes the tenth theme in the enterprise, and a prescribed unit of study in Grade X Social Studies particularly.
3. The 1936-45 terms are dropped. There is no specific term for the educational ideas stated.
4. Enterprise outlines are much more prescriptive.
5. Spelling and Science, while involved in enterprise work, become subjects again in their own right. Health is still in the enterprise but may be regarded as a "parallel activity."
6. Promotion policy has more of a balance between academic work and "socialization."
7. While co-operation is stressed, there is no fear about "wholesome" competition.
8. There is more emphasis upon the individual, and less emphasis upon "group activity, group planning, group responsibility, group evaluation, and group control." The pupil develops good character and citizenship, not only because of the conditioning of social experiences, but also because he uses the insights of religion to give him some philosophical underpinning.

1936-45

1945-63

9. The school is seen as taking over part of the vocational and social tasks of the family and industry. It stresses the vital part the family plays in society.

9. The school emphasizes the importance of the family unit, and through Social Studies and Health and Personal Development courses secures pupils' appreciation of the vital role that the family has in society.

At this point it is probably well to mention those things that the Department did continue in 1945-63.

1. The ideas of the activity or enterprise program (in slightly revised form), and social studies in all grades.
2. Guidance in the senior high school.
3. The same numbers of Departmental examinations.
4. Examinations which were still very broad in scope.
5. The 6-3-3 organization of grades.
6. The normal curve system of assigning marks to pupils in Departmental examinations.
7. Departmental support for extra-curricular activities in schools.
8. A stated emphasis upon the "whole child" and upon individual differences in children.

What lay behind 1945-63 policies? There are at least two reasons. First, at the political level, it became the policy to say that Christianity was basic to democracy and to education in a democracy.¹⁷³ This idea, naturally, became incorporated into Departmental

¹⁷³Social Studies in Grade Nine, 1948, p. 42, says that "the values of our civilization. . . have been set by the tradition developed by the Christian church. . . . Those values are in a sense the essence of our democracy. . . [they] still remain the directives of our social progress."

documents. Second, educators looked at the 1936-45 documents and saw a number of ideas stated in an extreme form. They saw authors assuming that enterprise work would quite logically give pupils proper breadth, sequence and depth in subject matter. The experience of nine or ten years in Alberta schools, however, showed a need for more direct prescription in courses of study. Educators saw a revulsion against "competition", and realized that while few adults really expose themselves to severe competition, there is yet enough competition in the world to justify its existence in the school; moreover, a certain amount of competition can stimulate high achievement socially as well as intellectually. Educators saw an emphasis upon the "group", and they felt that in a world full of complexity and social pressures the emphasis should lie upon producing strong individuals who could handle themselves well under group pressures.

In brief, then, after 1945, there was a clear-cut statement of basic philosophy, and a shift towards conservatism in some educational ideas.

It is essential though, to observe the great number of concepts carried over from 1936-45 to 1945-63. The points of view stated on page 322 of this study were obviously still acceptable to educational authorities. Most of the curricular and administrative practices flowing from these views were regarded as sensible. Departmental officials, for example, saw no need to abandon the enterprise, guidance, the 6-3-3 grade system or an interest in extra-curricular activities. Actually, after 1945 guidance courses and services were extended to cover the junior as well as the senior high school. And the notions of

interest and integration were further developed in the "unit" system of course organization in junior and senior high school. Obviously, educators did not regard "progressivism" as having any monopoly of certain views; they saw that many subjects and teaching methods were just as compatible with one basic "ism" as another, or one educational "ism" as another.

XI. SUMMARY

In 1936 the Department of Education instituted a number of changes in the public education system of the province. The Department also carried forward certain characteristics and trends of previous years.

In 1936 the 8-4 grade system became a 6-3-3 type of organization.

The curriculum was altered at various grade levels through the integration of certain subjects, and the introduction of new subjects. There was less subject matter prescription than before. In the elementary school this was most marked in 1940 and 1942. Thereafter, the Department introduced a greater degree of prescription. In the high school, changes by 1955 had reduced the number of matriculation subjects to six (for most University faculties). In 1963 the provision of one "core" of subjects for all high school students was modified with respect to requirements in English and Social Studies.

The general policy of a text for each course in junior and senior high school continued, although there was an increased emphasis upon collateral reading. The elementary school had relatively few texts in 1936, but later years brought additional text prescriptions (e.g.,

Spelling, Science).

Course of study outlines grew in volume. However, by 1961, there developed the policy of issuing two different kinds of publications: syllabi or programs of study which listed content and teaching materials; and curriculum guides which gave suggestions with respect to method.

The numbers of Departmental examinations in Grades VIII-XII were reduced in 1936-39 to examinations in academic subjects in Grades IX and XII only. Examinations were altered to some extent in nature, testing recognition, application, interpretation, and analyses, as well as recall and organization. The marks of Grade IX and XII pupils were determined through application of the normal curve marking system.

Promotion policies in all grades were to involve personal and social factors as well as academic achievement. Social factors were stressed in 1936-45, but less so in 1945-63. By 1960, grouping of pupils in various "streams" tended to alleviate some of the problems associated with "passing" or "failing" in a mass education system.

The "activity" procedure was introduced as an additional teaching procedure in Grades I-XII, being most highly systematized in Grades I-VI in the "enterprise". The activity method was linked inextricably to a particular way of prescribing and organizing subject matter. Departmental publications contain the four notions found in many previous chapters of this study: school life should be related to events outside the school; subject should be related to subject; pupils should do sound, thorough work; and pupil interest must

be secured if the school is to achieve the best results.

The aims of the school consisted of the following:

1. Intellectual Development
 - (a) The three R's
 - (b) A body of knowledge
 - (c) A grasp of general principles
 - (d) Development of reasoning power
 - (e) Development of creativity
 - (f) Transfer of training.
2. Physical Health
3. Aesthetic Development
4. Religious Knowledge and Development
5. Vocational Preparation
6. Preparation for Leisure
7. Mental Health
8. Morality and Good Character
9. Social Behavior
10. Preparation for Home and Family Life.
11. Development of Citizenship.

Number four, above, was of special concern in 1945-63. Number 7 is an aim that has not ~~emphatically~~ appeared in this study until this chapter.

The Department continued to be concerned about the normal, the bright, the dull, the retarded, the blind, the deaf, the physically handicapped. It supplied correspondence courses for those who were isolated, or who were in hospitals or prisons. Unit promotion in the high school, development of various subjects and programs in Grades VII-XII, and promotion policies in Grades I-XII showed consideration for individual differences in abilities and interests. The organization of school divisions and the encouragement of school centralization

were aimed at securing more years of education for rural pupils. The Northland School Division offered more and better services than had ever been offered before to residents of isolated districts in Northern Alberta.

While many aims of education are present in 1936-63, it appears that social development received a little more emphasis in 1936-45 than it did in 1945-63. At no time, however, was there any "down-grading" of the importance of the intellectual tasks of the school.

In the period under consideration Alberta passed through depression, war and post-war conditions. The province became more urbanized and more industrialized. Politically, the province continued as part of a democracy; economically, it maintained what is called the "free enterprise" system.

The school was seen as a community in which pupils were prepared to enter the adult life of the larger community. The school was to help secure social stability and solidarity, and at the same time provide a general training conducive to social change.

During 1936-45 educational ideas received the general label of "progressivism." After 1945, no one term seems applicable, for while some 1936-45 ideas are maintained, there are many changes. Departmental documents do not state a term applicable to 1945-63.

The basic philosophy of 1936-45 is difficult to determine. There seem to be elements of both pragmatism and Christian idealism. After 1945, Christian idealism is quite clearly presented as the basic philosophy. After 1950, a form of idealism remains.

CHAPTER X

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND COMMENT

At this point in this study it is well to re-state the limits within which the thesis was conducted.

The study was undertaken because there seemed to be confusion in some Departmental and non-Departmental documents about the nature and purposes of the public school system. This confusion exists for the pre-1936 period as well as for 1936-63. It was considered useful to make a panoramic, descriptive study of the years 1885-1963 so that the points of view of governments and officials could be surveyed, analysed, and identified.

Since it was the primary task of this study to determine official sentiments about education over a period of seventy-eight years, there was no attempt to state or analyse the views of non-Departmental persons. The only exception to this limitation lay in Chapter I, Section VI, wherein views of some non-Departmental persons were used to help illustrate the need for the thesis.

The study has not shown for different sets of ideas the origins of these various ideas. However, when Departmental writers themselves have indicated the influences that there have been upon particular views, these statements have been given and accepted at face value.

It is essential to note that the study has dealt only with the aims or intentions of educational authorities. It has not attempted to judge the success of various ideas as they have worked out or are working

out in practice. Also, the major emphasis in the study has been upon two questions, "Who should be educated?" and "To what ends?" Other sub-problems of the thesis have been dealt with in such a way as to constitute a general background for the two questions mentioned.

On page 5 of the study it was indicated that comment upon the "nature of man" would not appear in each chapter but would receive attention at the end. It is appropriate to remark briefly upon this general sub-problem at this point.

One finds for the Alberta school of 1885-1963 a view of human nature that is relatively simple: man is a fallible, imperfect, but intelligent creature. His intelligence must be developed through the pursuit of knowledge and wisdom, and must be placed in the service of human perfectibility, social order, and social progress. In a broad sense, the school is one of the most moral of institutions. It leads, orders, guides, directs, inspires, and cajoles children in order to help produce good individuals and a good society.¹

If the broad moral purpose of schools has remained constant for seventy-eight years, one might inquire about the narrower aspects of the conduct of schools. Have these really changed greatly since 1885? Or would a pupil (or teacher) of 1890 find himself very much at home in a 1963 school?

The answer is that schools have changed a great deal in seventy-eight years. An 1890 pupil would find various differences; particularly in the high school. The significant changes and the reasons for them are summarized below under the major headings used in many of the chapters of this study.

¹"Good" in the sense of embodying such virtues as these: industry, achievement, self-discipline, sympathy, loyalty, tolerance, justice, etc.

I. FEATURES OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Classification and Organization

1885-1912 - The formal organization of tax supported schools in the Territories. Standards I-V (common school) begun at once. High school standards V-VI begun in 1888-89. High school shortly became standards VI-VIII.

1912-36 - Standards changed to grades, I-VIII is public school, IX-XII high school.

1936-63 - Grades I-VI became elementary school, VI-IX the junior high school and X-XII the senior high school.

The original classification of pupils by standards was an idea imported from Ontario. Dr. Tory, President of the University of Alberta, persuaded government officials to change to the "grade" system in 1912 at the time of the first general curriculum revision in this province.² The difficulty that teachers and inspectors had experienced with promotion policies under the "standard" system gave some cause for hope that twelve grades would offer a more suitable division of subject matter for the great percentage of pupils.

The 1936 change in organization of the school system resulted from a view that there should be a special kind of school, the junior high school, for pupils in early adolescence. In these grades (VII-VIII-IX) the basic education of Grades I-VI was to be carried forward and was to

²This information came from an August, 1959 interview with Dr. G. F. McNally who was an inspector of schools in 1912. Dr. McNally retired as Deputy Minister of Education in 1946.

have added to it some exploration of vocational and cultural subjects. The junior high school was to serve as a "finishing" school for many students--thus securing for them one more grade of schooling than they had had in the older I-VIII organization. It also prepared pupils for high school, while permitting them to postpone vocational choice until they reached Grade X.

Curriculum

- 1885-92 - Major subjects of the public or common school were reading, spelling, composition, writing, arithmetic, grammar, geography, history, Manners and Morals, literature, book-keeping, Agriculture, art, calisthenics, music and needlework also offered.
- Major high school subjects were reading, spelling, composition, writing, arithmetic, grammar, geography, history, literature, book-keeping, drawing, calisthenics and drill, algebra, geometry, Latin, French. Agriculture also offered.
- 1892-
1901 - Agriculture now compulsory for public school. Hygiene and Domestic Economy added.
- Physics, chemistry and botany added to high school.
- 1901-05 - Public school program continued. Nature study lower grades, Agriculture in upper. High school biology added. Elective principle introduced (e.g., students might offer Latin instead of Algebra; French or German instead of either grammar or chemistry, etc.).

- 1905-12 - Public school program continued much as before. Minor changes in prescriptions in the high school but general core of old program is retained.
- 1912-22 - Manners and Morals dropped from program. Geometry added for Grade VIII. Manual Training and Household Science added for upper grades. School gardening became an approved activity. Zoology, Greek and Music, added to high school. Agriculture extended to the high school. Also a range of commercial, technical and home economics electives added to the program.
- 1922-36 - French and some commercial subjects added for upper grades of public school. Elective principle introduced for selection of general, agricultural, industrial, or commercial courses.
- 1936-63 - Elementary school has basic subjects of reading, literature, physical education, language, spelling, writing, arithmetic, health, science, art, music, social studies (history, geography, citizenship).
- junior high school kept core of English, social studies, mathematics, science, health, physical education. Kept music, art, shop, home economics and accounting as options. Added drama and typewriting as options. Personal development introduced in 1950's.
 - senior high school abandoned six programs or "courses" as formal programs. Kept matriculation, technical, commercial courses. Added guidance, geology, drama,

social sciences, Ukrainian. Developed special set of vocational courses in 1963 in such subjects as electricity, beauty culture, food preparation, metals, etc.

Over a period of years a significant trend has been that of a reduction in the English, history and mathematics required of high school students. Major additions to the total school program have taken place in the physical and biological sciences, the fine arts, the industrial arts and home economics, the commercial and technical courses. The period of 1912-22 marks the point at which the major change in curriculum policy took place. Changes since that time have merely been footnotes to that history.

In the higher grades there has also been a trend to requiring fewer subjects per pupil per year, and a third trend to greater flexibility in programs for individual students. The twentieth century has been the century of the high school.

The above changes in policy and detail have resulted from inter-related factors--social, political, economic, technological, and educational. First of all, there has been a social pressure exerted through the political institution of the provincial government. If schools are publicly supported, it is logical that there should be public pressures to have the schools serve as many kinds of pupil abilities, interests and handicaps as possible. For students of "normal" capacities, this pressure has not been as strong upon the lower grades as upon the upper; the public appears to accept the notion that every child needs to secure a good basic training in the Three R's. But as pupils progress through the grades a wide diversity in abilities and interests becomes

increasingly apparent. At one time this diversity was not considered significant. If a pupil could maintain his place in an academic program which prepared him for one of the few professional positions in a rural society, well and good. If he could not keep up with his fellows he left school in order to enter farm, commercial or construction work.

However, as the world of thought became more scientific and more technical, as people became more urbanized, as productivity per person increased, as specialization increased, and as ideas spread with greater rapidity, the amount of schooling required of professional and managerial classes became greater. New professional classes arose. Dozens of new skilled and semi-skilled occupations came into existence. People in old occupations (e.g., farming) could no longer maintain a respectable position in a competitive economy unless they became more knowledgeable. Thus, public education, which had been concerned more with "ideas" than with "things", had to take account of changing conditions which required more skills, and knowledge from more people at the same time as it gave them more leisure. Also, in an "open" society, schooling was seen as a means of achieving position and prestige.

At the same time as all of the above forces were pressing in upon schools, professional educators were re-assessing some of their viewpoints about children. Particularly of concern was the mounting evidence about individual differences in pupils' learning rates and interests. Also, sociologists and psychologists were investigating the motivation of children and its relation to learning.

While governments and their officials were judging pressures and re-assessing their own sentiments, they were doing so in the light of a

relatively constant set of notions about children and their abilities. According to these notions there are three major sources of material for the education of the young:

1. The story of the relationships of man to man (history, literature, ethics, the social sciences, etc.).

2. (a) The story of the relationship of man to his environment, and of things to their environment (mathematics, physical and biological sciences, geography, etc.).

- 2 (b) The story of the material things that man has created (machines, technologies, trades, etc.).³

3. The story of man's attempts to communicate with other men (literature, fine arts, modern and classical languages, etc.).

Within each of these three sources, it is possible to have concepts at different levels ranging from the concrete to the highly abstract. If a student is highly "intelligent" he is likely to be able to deal with abstract concepts in any of the three categories. Thus, with a highly selected group of students in the upper grades, the Territorial school had a curriculum that was academic, abstract and theoretical. When it was formally recognized that even highly intelligent people were more capable in some subjects than in others, the elective principle was introduced in high schools in 1901.

But, as social pressures upon the school increased, and as more and more children continued in school for more years (particularly in high school), provision was made for some students to receive public

³#2(b) is basically applied mathematics and science and therefore is listed as a part of point #2. It is at a lower level of abstraction than 2(a).

schooling at levels that were less abstract. Thus commercial, vocational and semi-vocational courses were introduced in 1912-22 in Grades VII-XII, though students in these programs received some "abstract" subjects held to be vital to the general academic education of any person (e.g., English, history, mathematics, science).

The 1912-63 recognition of leisure in our society led to formal provision at the high school level of courses in the fine arts.

It is worth noticing that the student seeking Normal School entrance or matriculation has always been required to take those subjects which stress abstraction in number 1, number 2(a) and number 3 above.

In the early 1960's, the Federal-Provincial agreement concerning vocational education brought the federal government into action as a curriculum authority. The high school diploma programs arising from this agreement contained less English and Social Studies than before, and included mathematics and science courses far less rigorous than those previously accepted for diploma purposes. Thus general academic education was reduced in favor of narrow vocational training, and the "skilled" man given precedence over the "broadly educated" man. And the end is not yet in sight.

The writer of this study does not agree with the trend mentioned immediately above. The writer feels that the pupil's education as a citizen should take precedence over his training as a producer. It is folly to produce students who are being given less and less acquaintance with the story of man's relation to man, the relationship of man to his environment, and the story of man's attempts to communicate to other men. It is folly because each citizen needs all of the general education he

can get, and because narrow vocational training is likely to be relatively useless to a student within a few years anyway.

In addition, the writer feels that educators have consistently under-estimated the ability of students to deal with abstractions (including the abstractions known as values). With better texts and references and better teaching techniques, and a changed point of view, teachers could do far more about abstract and "theoretical" topics than they are now doing. It is better to attempt this than to categorize children on the basis of skimpy and unsound evidence and then to cast them aside as belonging to the "slow" stream.

The question is one of degree. In this writer's opinion the school must have some "practical" courses in its curriculum, but not to the point of absurdity, for in the long run only the theoretical or abstract is truly practical. We need the concepts with which man can understand man; and we must constantly extend those concepts through which man understands and controls his physical environment.

It is rather ironic that the present trend in diploma programs (in the high school) to more technology and less general education is a denial in detail of the very principle that gave rise to differentiated programs in the high school in the first place. For centuries there has been a slow and grudging acceptance of the principle that the individual has worth and should be accorded respect. The struggle, worked out first at the political level, led in England to all of the political powers and civil liberties that were achieved at the end of the Stuart dynasty. Since that time the struggle has continued at the political level in the search for suffrage, and in the removal of

religious or other barriers to public office.

This liberal-humane tradition, related very closely to the freedom of thought brought about by the Renaissance, the Reformation, and the Scientific-Industrial Revolution, could not be contained at the political level but spread to other levels as well. Thus, social and economic reforms inevitably developed not only in England but elsewhere; these reforms looked to the protection of the individual against arbitrary and inhumane actions; they attempted to "humanize" war; they also attempted to ameliorate the effects on the individual of the impersonal and "faceless" power inherent in government bureaucracies and large concentrations of industrial and agricultural wealth. Then, by the end of the nineteenth century, countries in Europe and North America had developed publicly supported school systems which were really a recognition in principle not only of the worth of individuals, but went beyond the idea of "protection" to the vastly broader sentiment of "development" of the individual. The changes that have taken place in public education in the last sixty or seventy years have been concerned with this development.

Thus, for hundreds of years we have had the slow working out of the revolutionary idea that the individual is worth something. This is such a revolutionary idea that few countries in the world yet give it any practical effect at all, even at the political level. If our society is to maintain this most worth-while of views, it must ensure that our school systems acquaint young people with this view as thoroughly as possible throughout their school careers, and particularly when young people are in their more mature years. Yet, and this is the

irony mentioned above, the diploma programs in this province now include less English and less Social Studies than they have ever included before, and place the Social Studies at the lowest age level possible.⁴ And English and Social Studies are the very subjects which offer most opportunity for giving our young people some feeling in "depth" for the revolutionary tradition. To put the issue in terms of metaphor, educational authorities continue to graft more and more branches (and weight) on to the tree of individuality at the same time as they are cheerfully hacking away at the tree trunk itself. Or to change the metaphor, provincial authorities are exchanging a pupil's birthright for a mess of federal pottage.

The explanation for the irony pointed out above is reasonably simple. High school and university authorities generally have only a slight grasp of the importance of the revolutionary "tradition", and where they do grasp it do not see clearly the most direct means of acquainting all pupils with it. Further, they do not see the practical means of giving effect to this tradition in our schools, for the matriculant is treated from class to class as all-important, the diploma student as a poorly tolerated evil. The most striking proof of this lies in the response to the 1962-63 Department of Education announcement about changed requirements in English and Social Studies for the diploma student. Literally, there was no response. Or the response could be given as, "Who cares?" If the same profound reductions in requirements had taken place in the matriculation route, there would

⁴The reader will remember that the high school diploma was revised to accommodate vocational programs under the Federal-Provincial agreement for vocational schools. English was reduced by almost 30% and Social Studies by 33 1/3%.

have been strong and immediate protests from the Alberta Teachers' Association, The Alberta School Trustees' Association, the University Women's Club, all of the faculties at the University of Alberta, The Calgary Herald, the Edmonton Journal, the Red Deer Advocate, etc., etc. Arrogance about the matriculation route blinds most people to the fact that the diploma student, is an average or above average student, will soon be a citizen and a voter, and will need as much general education as he can secure. He does not have the matriculant's opportunity of securing further general education through formal schooling.

Texts and References

1885-1912 - The era of the single text per subject.

1912-1963 - More and more emphasis placed upon collateral reading, or upon the use of various references in place of the single text. The School Book Branch of the Department, for example, was founded in 1912-22 as the School Libraries Branch.

The single text has been supplemented or replaced by many references primarily because of changed views held by educators. In the Territorial days and in the early periods in Alberta, the Departmental examinations that exist show a concern for what one might call "imitative" learning. There was a strong emphasis upon mastering a limited body of material and of recalling this at appropriate examination periods. There was relatively little emphasis upon interpretation, personal opinion or other forms of creativity. Over a period of years educators began to see that they were not using the full powers of children's minds, and that wide reading not only stimulated a child

intellectually but made it more likely that he would easily grasp and vividly retain a "final" limited body of material. The use of many references also made it possible for the child to progress through the same stages of analysis, judgment and generalization as had been experienced by his teacher. Not only this, but wide reading could introduce the student to those techniques of study and research which would set him on the road to being "self-starting" and self-propelling" in his continuing education as an adult.

One must not overlook two circumstances which made it possible for educators to consider wide reading. One was the growing wealth of the province; parents and educational authorities could afford to purchase books. The second circumstance is that authors and publishing companies began to produce books designed specifically for children at different age levels.

Courses of Study

1885-1963 - Courses of study have become more voluminous and more detailed with each succeeding period of educational history.

The earliest courses of study were succinct, often being no more than the statement of the text prescribed for a course. However, as changes in ideas occurred at the level of the central authority, the courses of study were seen as the lever with which to move the Territories and the Province. In the best tradition of "management", the officials in the central authority stated general aims for schooling, limited aims for particular subjects, the details of course materials

to be studied, the reasons for choosing certain subjects for schools, the faults of "old" teaching methods, and the newer and approved teaching methods to be used.

By the 1960's, the competence of teachers to select their own teaching methods was finally recognized. The Department of Education is now prepared to state the materials that should be studied, but will simply "suggest" newer methods and forms of classroom organization through publication of service bulletins.

The above policy is a tribute to teacher education at the University of Alberta. It is also an indication of the fact that Departmental officials are prepared to recognize the part played by professional competence as it exists within the framework of the province's legal authority over education.

Departmental Examinations

1885-1963 - Examinations by the central authority have existed in all periods. On brief occasions these external examinations have extended down into the public school grades. For the most part, however, they have been confined to high school entrance, high school grades and high school graduation. The number of external examinations was reduced in 1936-39 to two sets of papers, one for Grade IX and one for Grade XII. The number of external examinations per pupil for matriculation and for high school graduation has steadily been reduced over the years. A matriculant now is

obliged to write only six or seven subjects. A diploma student by 1965 will be obliged to write English 30 only. If he happens to reside in several of the larger school districts of the province, or in an accredited school system, he may write a locally prepared English 30 examination; he will thus not write any provincial papers after completion of Grade IX.

A reduction in the number of subjects taken by all students, and a reduction in the number of external examinations to be written, are the two noteworthy trends in the above summary. The first trend is related to a general feeling on the part of educators and the public that the older curriculum with ten or twelve subjects overloaded the student and did not make it possible for the school to secure a desirable depth in subject matter. The second trend springs from a conviction that the school or system is better able to test the student than is the central authority. External examinations tend to impose rigidity and uniformity upon teaching materials and teaching procedures, and prevent useful adaptations of course outlines. However, general provincial concern for "standards", and the present Departmental and university policies concerning scholarships, are two strong factors working in continuance of external examinations for university entrance.⁵

Although there are available no sets of Departmental examinations

⁵Courses of study, teacher training, texts and references, supplies, buildings, equipment and the general competence of teachers and administrators are (if taken together) probably the real guarantors of "standards".

for 1914-1936, it is possible to establish some generalizations about existing papers for 1885-1914 and 1936-63. Examinations of the earlier period tended to stress basic skills and the recall and organization of subject matter. There was some application, interpretation, personal opinion, and creativity.

Later papers show the types of questions used previously. But, they show greater stress upon application, interpretation, and creativity. They also require a greater use of recognition, analysis, and explanation.

Additionally, later papers are much bulkier than earlier examinations. This is a result of the examiners' attempt to test a whole course broadly as well as certain parts in depth. The breadth tends to be given through short-answer types of questions.

In general the kinds of examinations given reflect major educational views of a period. Thus, as the school moved away from "imitative" learning into many class discussions and broad reading assignments, the examinations reflected the trend. Examination papers made more provision for individual differences, and they tested the operation of more kinds of intellectual abilities.⁶

Promotion Policy

In standards or grades subjected to external examinations, the rate of passing or failing has been determined by the central authority.

⁶Many individuals decry the passing of examinations which were almost wholly "essay" examinations. Educational authorities in this province have attempted to keep some essay questions--and thus the advantages of this type of examination--but have tried to balance these with types of questions which overcame the deficiencies found in the pure essay examination.

From 1886-1936 this rate fluctuated fairly widely year by year and subject by subject. The "yardstick" was the examiners' standards and their opinion as to whether or not the examinations had been too easy or too difficult. There was no valid way of measuring the relative difficulty of different examinations, and no valid and reliable controls were established to check the quality of the work done year by year.

After 1936 a normal curve system was adopted for all external examinations in Grades IX and XII. A designated percentage of pupils fell into the various categories of marks. The system assumed (and still assumes) that with large numbers of students the range of abilities and the range of knowledge and skills will be about equal year by year. To date, this system has not had any quality control studies accompanying it, either.

Pupils not required to write external examinations have passed their year or their subject upon the basis of the judgment of individual teachers.⁷

After 1936, there was supposed to be a strong element of "social promotion" for pupils in those grades not subject to external examinations. By 1956, however, Departmental statements indicated that the social factor was just one of many important factors. (A close reading of the Promotion Policies Report of 1956 indicates that the Department was adapting its statement of suggested promotion policy to existing practices in the province.)

⁷Unit promotion has been the high school practice since 1924. It provided for individual differences in ability and for such special circumstances as illness, harvest leave, etc.

Teaching Procedures⁸

1885-1912 - Learning activities consisted mostly of lectures, recitations, textual study, questioning, drill, explanations, busy work (seat work) and homework.

1912-1936 - Teacher-pupil informal consultation added through work in school gardening and technical subjects. Experimental work and field work also added. Wider reading by pupils encouraged.

1936-1963 - Continuation of all of the above procedures. Addition of the "enterprise" or "activity" method with discussions, group planning and reporting, open forums, debates, panel discussions, individual research and reporting. (One publication of this period suggests 50 percent of the time for formal teaching, 40 percent to the socialized procedures listed above, and 10 percent to testing.)

The observable trend in the summary given above is from formal to more informal procedures. Some of the duties of lesson presentation are shifted from the teacher to the pupils. Generally speaking, pupils are supposed to be offered more opportunity to do sustained and creative

⁸The work of the school, according to authorities of periods as early as the 1892-1901 period, was to have five general characteristics:

1. Lessons were to be made as interesting and practical as possible by the relating of lesson material to events, problems and objects in everyday life outside of the school.
2. Each subject should be related whenever possible to other subjects on the curriculum.
3. Pupils' interest should be secured since it helped to produce good work.
4. New work should be related to work just taken.
5. Pupils should secure a thoroughly sound grasp of the work taken.

thinking.

A significant change in teaching method took place in 1936, and was accompanied by a change in the organization of some subject matter-- a change known as integration. This new development was most readily observable in the Social Studies. The total result was that informal methods were now formally prescribed for schools, and formally prescribed subject matter became informally flexible.

After 1945 subject matter became more closely prescribed (e.g., in Social Studies, Science, Language, Spelling), though the enterprise method was still held to be useful. This conservative revision of the enterprise program resulted from a number of related factors:

1. All schools, and particularly rural schools were poorly equipped to undertake a program that called for vast resources in equipment, supplies and libraries.
2. Many teachers did not have the broad general background necessary to handle the ideas of the enterprise.
3. Teachers who did have a good background found it difficult to shift from their current ideas over to the new set of ideas prescribed by the central authority.
4. Many classes were too large to be handled well by enterprise procedures.

The above factors contributed to spotty and fragmented learnings by pupils. Teachers and pupils apparently needed more direction in the work to be done, and the Department furnished this direction in 1947 and the years following. At least three other factors also contributed to a revision of the enterprise:

5. The Department of Education was not able to present massive and overwhelming evidence from the province to the effect that the new procedures produced better results than the old. In fact, little attempt to amass Alberta evidence has ever been made.
6. Many parents found the newer procedures and the language and form of the new report cards difficult to understand.
7. Probably the most general and powerful argument against the enterprise in its 1936 form was that it represented a reform initiated primarily by educators. It was not the result of social, economic or technological pressures being felt and exerted by the public. (Educators, like politicians, may lead but they had best not get so far ahead that they get cut off). The public wanted a new world of social and economic reform, but it wanted reform at a general level and not really at the level of the individual person. Certainly it did not expect the school to reform society by reforming individuals. Thus, the 1936 educators, mistaking the degree of public interest in co-operation, self-discipline, and sacrifice, emphasized social concern and social adjustment in the schools, and were rebuked for their pains. The public's value pattern of industry, achievement, perseverance and competition was too strongly set to be dislodged even by a World War and a depression. The 1947-63 revisions of the activity program have been in the direction of specifying achievement.

The reformers of 1936 made tactical errors in misrepresenting much

of what had occurred in the past (when morality and social concern had been important), and in stressing social concern as a vital new part of the new program. If the reformers had stressed the greater measurable intellectual achievement resulting from the enterprise (demonstrating this through reliable Alberta research), and had indicated greater social concern and adjustment as a valuable by-product,⁹ they would have been on far sounder ground and would ultimately have met far less criticism. As it was, the Department of Education could not meet the public's expectations in measured achievement, and thus left itself open to the vague but damaging claims that the New Education was a departure from "essentialism", or was a snare set by American materialism, or was a device to condition children to the mindless world of vast political and bureaucratic machines.

II. THE AIMS FOR THE SCHOOL

On the following page there is given a summary of the various aims of education for 1885-1963, and the relative emphases upon different aims in the periods under study.¹⁰

A number of aims have remained constant over the years. These are the aims of intellectual development, physical health, morality and

⁹As this author understands the 1936-45 publications, the aims as stated are what the reformers really meant, anyway. They were proposing a new view of the learning process which, in their opinion, involved the development of a different kind of "social" man

¹⁰As was mentioned in Chapter III, the available source materials for 1885-92 give one a general idea of the aims for the school, but interpretation is needed at a number of specific points.

AIMS FOR THE SCHOOL

	1885- 1892	1892- 1912	1912- 1922	1922- 1936	1936- 1945	1945- 1963
Intellectual Development						
Three R's	Major	Major	Major	Major	Major	Major
Body of Knowledge	Major	Major	Major.	Major	Major	Major
General Principles	Minor	Major	Major	Major	Major	Major
Reasoning Power and Clear Thinking	Minor	Major	Major	Major	Major	Major
Powers of Observation	Major	Major	Major			
Critical Thinking				Major	Major	Major
Creativity				Major	Major	Major
Mental Discipline		Major	Major			
Transfer of Training				Major	Major	Major
Physical Health	Major	Major	Major	Major	Major	Major
Aesthetic Development	Minor	Major	Major	Major	Major	Major
Religious Development	Major	Minor	Minor	Major	Minor	Major
Vocational Preparation	Minor	Minor	Major	Major	Major	Major
Preparation for Leisure				Major	Major	Major
Mental Health	Minor				Major	Major
Good Character	Major	Major	Major	Major	Major	Major
Social Development	Major	Major	Major	Major	Major	Major
Family Life	Minor	Minor	Minor	Major	Major	Major
Citizenship	Major	Major	Major	Major	Major	Major

good character, social development, and citizenship.

Within these constant aims, there are some differences in interpretation at one time or another. Thus, intellectual development has always meant a good grasp of the Three R's, a body of knowledge, and a basic set of principles. But reasoning power and clear thinking has gradually had aspects of critical thinking and creative thinking added to it. These latter terms are a reflection of trends found elsewhere in this chapter in the sections on texts, examinations and teaching procedures; the twentieth century tendency is to ask the pupil to look at materials critically and do some thinking for himself, rather than to follow to an extremely high degree the reasoning of the teacher or the text.

Also, by 1922, Departmental authorities had rejected the older

views about the automatic transfer of training inherent in the disciplines of mathematics and the grammar of modern and classical languages; transfer of training was now contingent upon "identical elements" or "components" and was much more likely to be brought about when the teacher deliberately sought opportunities to show how transfer could be effected.

Aesthetic development is listed for most periods as a major concern of educational authorities. A critic might quibble about this, but there is abundant evidence that educational authorities were concerned about art, music and literature; they were certainly long concerned about clean, neat and lovely physical surroundings for children during their school life.

Religious development has had a series of changes. Under a Board of Education organized on sectarian lines (1885-92) it was a major concern. In the period of Dr. D. J. Goggin's influence when the central educational authority was secularized, there was sympathy for religious idealism.¹¹ After 1912 there is little mention of religious idealism, but it returns in the revision of 1922, is in a minor position in 1936-45, and emerges strongly again in 1945-63, first as Christian idealism (1945-50) and then as religious idealism (1950-63). Examination of the various documents for 1885-1963 leads one to state that although there were certain fundamental influences at work in connection with

¹¹ Some materials of 1885-1900 mention development of the pupil's "conscience". This is a term that does not seem to appear thereafter. Its disappearance is indicative of a degree of secularization of society and the school.

religion,¹² there is good cause to feel that the strong religious idealism expressed in publications of 1892-1912, 1922-36, and 1945-63, is really due to the influence of certain individuals in positions of authority in the central government and its bureaucracy. Dr. D. J. Goggin is a good illustration of this fact.

Vocational preparation, in a minor position until 1912-22, first received major emphasis at the time of the first World War. It is apparent that Alberta educators recognized in principle the nature of the scientific-technical revolution that was affecting the whole of the Western World and that was becoming increasingly apparent in Canada. The war in Europe gave strong evidence of the development of technologies. The two World Wars also stimulated industrial growth in Canada and gave impetus to specialization in labor and a rural-urban shift in population.

Leisure, scarcely mentioned before 1922, becomes a major concern in educational statements of that time. Again, one can see in the background the general influences of the industrial revolution (in farm and factory) that was making leisure possible.

Mental health, mentioned once or twice briefly in 1885-92, became of major importance in 1936. This may be related to the inclusion of more social sciences in the curriculum, but is more basically related to the twentieth century growth of psychology, psychiatry, and sociology. It was recognized that the school had an important influence upon the emotional reactions of young people. It is significant that the 1936

¹²These influences will be examined in some detail in a later portion of this chapter.

enterprise program sought to take greater advantage of pupil interest as well as to reduce harmful competition between individuals. "This program," said one author of 1936, "is based on a fundamental and well-established principle of psychology concerning the way in which human beings actually learn." And again, "the teachers should be experts in the psychology of adolescence."

Family life took on major importance in 1922. It is likely that changes in society and consequently in the role of the family made it seem reasonable for pupils to study and understand the importance of the family. In some publications of the 1936-63 era, the family is seen as a threatened institution. Once taken for granted, the family must now be preserved through conscious study and design.

Something of the same reasoning as stated above applies to citizenship, too, for "democracy" which was simply accepted as the normal form of political organization in publications of 1885-1936, became the subject of special study in 1936-63. This change in emphasis is apparently related to the rise of the fascist nations in the 1930's, and to the threat of communism. It is also an outgrowth of the development in Canada of big labor, big capital, big government, and big pressure groups. As the social structure and functioning of a nation change, it is inevitable that the political structure will come under examination and re-examination. Departmental publications insist that democracy is the political structure best capable of coping with change at the same time as it preserves fundamental human privileges (civil liberties).

One other change in emphasis within citizenship is that of

nationalism to internationalism. Earlier courses of study in the Territories and Alberta stressed British and Canadian history. This insular view was gradually altered to place more emphasis upon Canada's international relationships. Two world wars, a savage world depression, and Canada's present place as a great trading nation have left no doubt in educators' minds as to the necessity of balancing nationalism with some broader views.

In summary, then, the schools have added new aims since 1885. They have discarded some and re-interpreted others.

III. WHO SHOULD BE EDUCATED?

1885-1892 - "Normal" individuals entitled to a tax supported academic education if they are close enough to a school to secure it.

1892-1912 - Deaf mutes offered elementary schooling in Manitoba.

1912-1922 - Vocational courses provided as well as academic.

Fine arts added to high school.

- Provision made for a provincial institution for mentally retarded children.

- Blind children offered schooling in Ontario.

- Provision made in law for better high school facilities for rural pupils.

1922-1936 - Department displays favorable sentiments toward acceleration of able students.

- Provincial grants made towards classrooms accommodating less able students.

- Provincial correspondence courses instituted for elementary pupils in isolated areas.
 - Provincial grants made for sight-saving classes.
- 1936-1963 - Formation of school divisions prepares the way for better facilities, Grades I-XII, for rural pupils.
- Correspondence course work extended to high school pupils.
 - Provincial grants paid for opportunity classes, cerebral palsy classes, schools for retarded children, speech and hearing classes, hospital and homebound classes, pre-employment classes.
 - Formation of the Northland School Division to serve Métis children and settlers in remote areas of low assessment.

The noticeable trend over many years has been to offer schooling for more grades to more pupils, and to accommodate more kinds of abilities as well as handicaps. The main reason for this trend lies in the functioning of a publicly-supported system of schools. When an individual pays taxes he expects to secure schooling for his own child as well as the children of others. If his child has a particular handicap, then the ratepayer seeks a way to provide for that handicap. Social pressure, if there is enough of it, becomes translated into political action.

IV. THE NATURE OF SOCIETY

1885-1892 - Society is predominantly rural.

- 1892-1912 - Society seen as predominantly rural, stable, democratic and loyal to Anglo-Saxon values.
- 1912-1922 - An urban trend begins. Educators notice that population is mobile.
- 1922-1936 - Educators recognize rapid increase in knowledge of natural phenomenon, in use of mass media, and in specialized occupations. Universal suffrage emphasizes need to prepare pupils for citizenship. The World War reveals need for common ideals in the world, and less prejudice about race, creed and tongue.
- 1936-1963 - The Great Depression reveals serious problems in production and distribution of goods. Society becomes predominantly urban. Stability of democracy and of "free enterprise" system no longer taken for granted as events of war and cold war succeed each other with startling rapidity.

The nature of society in Alberta changed largely because of the impact of forces outside of the province. World wars and depressions, and vast changes in political, social, industrial and scientific ideas changed the province from a relatively serene and stable agricultural territory to a bustling urban society in which the notion of change is almost accepted as normal. Certainly, change in material things is accepted as normal, and is even sought after. In this latter respect, the massive forces of technology and advertising have been paramount. The individual and the family are seen as very small units in a world that contains larger and larger concentrations of economic and political

power.

V. THE FORM OF THE SCHOOL

1885-1936 - The school exists as an instrument of society stimulating present growth in the child so that he can fit into society--"to make a living and live a worthy life." The school has its own organization, procedures and customs (as befits any form of social organization). The emphasis is upon the child's growth of the moment and not upon treating the child as a miniature adult.

1936-1963 - The school is now organized more definitely to provide children with an opportunity to prepare for democratic citizenship.

The writers of 1936 saw an apparent need for the school to give pupils more training for the social and political organization of society. While the authorities of the period saw a need for the school to be "democratic", no one went so far as to assert that the school was in form really a democracy. Thus, authorities avoided the logical implications of this ultimate absurdity.

VI. THE SCHOOL AND SOCIAL CHANGE

1885-1892 - No direct evidence.

1892-1912 - Since society is seen as relatively stable, there is little opportunity for the school to be cast in the role of supporting or denying change.

1912-1922 - Society is seen as changing but the school is not required to assume any special duties in adjusting to or initiating change.

1922-1936 - The school is to act conservatively, providing for the adjustment of the individual student to the social ideals and standards of his time, but also preparing him to take a part in modifying ideals and standards as these cease to be effective.

1936-1963 - The school is to secure social stability and solidarity and at the same time provide for social progress.

As the school moved well into the twentieth century and as the pace of change accelerated, educators saw a need for the school to help students adjust to change. It is clear that social change of an evolutionary sort was the only kind welcomed by educators since they continued to stress the necessary combination of stability and change.

VII. EDUCATIONAL IDEAS: A LABEL

1885-1936 - No label given by authorities.

1936-1945 - Era of "progressive education", the "New Education", or "activity education."

1945-1963 - No label given by authorities.

For many years educational authorities operated a school system which they considered to have imperfections, but to be basically good. Changes were made from time to time to meet new circumstances or continuing problems. It was not until 1936-45 that the pre-1936 era came

to have the label of being "traditional" or old-fashioned. The 1936 authorities conceived of themselves as having a totally different viewpoint about the schooling of children and, for this reason, made sharp distinctions between their sentiments and those they attributed to authorities of the pre-1936 era. Authorities of the 1945-63 period retained many of the educational ideas of 1936-45 (e.g., the enterprise program), but quietly dropped the general labels of the previous nine years.

VIII. BASIC PHILOSOPHIES: LABELS

- 1885-1892 - Christian idealism is fundamental. Teachers required by law to impress upon pupils the principles and morals of the Christian religion.
- 1892-1912 - Religious idealism is prevalent. God created all, moves all, and is in all. Pupils are to be taught reverence, gratitude, etc.
- 1912-1922 - No basic philosophy is discernible.
- 1922-1936 - A return to an interest in Christianity--the betterment of social, business, industrial and commercial life by the application of Christian principles and the practice of the Golden Rule.
- 1936-1945 - No clear-cut statement is obtainable. Evidence exists of idealism, and also of the concepts of experimentalism.
- 1945-1950 - Definite statements assert Christian idealism to be basic to Canadian society and to the Alberta school.

1950-1963 - Statements favor a philosophy compatible with Christianity and democracy.

The changes noted above do not constitute a trend. It is proper, though, to say that they constitute evidence of the dilemma faced by a society which is Christian in origin in that they represent the answers given in the respective periods to these questions:

1. Has the school a role to play in religious instruction?
2. If Christianity has a number of points of view contained within it, how can the schools accommodate these differences?
3. Even if a society is Christian, has it the moral right to require non-Christians to be exposed to Christianity in the schools?

In 1885 the Territories had a high percentage of Catholic residents. The federal government, sensitive to the issue of religious "rights", gave the Territories a Dual System modelled on that of Quebec. As Anglo-Saxon and Protestant immigrants flowed into the Territories, bringing with them all of their various differences in religious views, they also brought the typical view of evangelicals concerning the task of the state school: the school should give a general education which recognized the value of religion, but which did not attempt to indoctrinate any one particular set of views; the home and the church should look after religious training. The Methodists, Presbyterians, Congregationalists and others who came to the West had had enough experience in Europe and in central and eastern Canada to know of the problems created by the state support of an "established" church. They also recognized the practical administrative problems that would have to be

faced if each of fifteen or twenty groups wanted its own school system.

Thus, in 1892, political pressure in the Territorial Assembly was great enough to bring about the introduction of a system which was state-controlled, which gave every deference to religious conviction, but which made provision for religious instruction only in the last half-hour of a school day at the discretion of a board of trustees. Between 1892 and 1901, Dr. D. J. Goggin, Superintendent of Education, gave strong support for the school's teaching of a religious idealism. His views appeared to hold until 1912 and to be acceptable to many.

For the period of 1912 to 1922 it is difficult to find reasonable evidence about any explicit philosophical view at all.

In 1922, probably largely through the influence of Dr. G. F. McNally, statements about Christian idealism appear again in provincial publications.

In 1936, the evidence becomes rather confused. Dr. H. C. Newland, in supporting progressive education, used a number of the concepts peculiar to pragmatism. But Dr. D. K. Dickie uses language which is at some points clearly idealistic. And other evidence of the period suggests that progressive education (the Alberta version) owed much to men such as Pestalozzi and Froebel about whose religious idealism there can be little doubt. This is not to suggest necessarily that Alberta drew religious idealism from these men, but only to say that John Dewey was not the only source of ideas for Alberta.

In 1945 it was clearly the Minister of Education, the Honorable R. E. Ansley, who indicated that Christianity was basic to our society and our schools. This view was modified in 1950 by Departmental

statements which were a degree more liberal; pupils, in this view, should develop a philosophy of life which recognized the importance of religion and which was compatible with Christianity and democracy. In this respect, then, the province was not requiring schools to inculcate religion, but it obviously indicated sympathy for religious views. And to this extent the province was still placing the children of non-religious parents at a certain disadvantage.

In retrospect, one can observe that the 1892 changes in the central authority in education might have meant that the central authority did not espouse any one basic point of view but simply stated values which people of many views could have supported. Such was not the case, however. For many years there appears to have been a strong feeling that the values of our society are inextricably linked to idealism and particularly to Christianity.

As far as formal philosophies are concerned, the Department of Education has been untouched by such philosophies of the twentieth century as existentialism, Marxism, logical positivism or linguistic analysis. One can doubt, too, how much it was really affected by pragmatism.

John A. Irving, in Science and Values, points out certain trends in philosophy in Canada. There appears to be five general periods:

1. The Scottish philosophy of Common Sense, 1850-1872.
2. Objective Idealism, of John Watson, 1872-1922.
3. The Realism of George Sidney Brett, 1910-1940.
4. A "balanced philosophy", 1940-1950.
5. An emphasis on intellectual history and social philosophy,

1950-?¹³

Irving shows the extent to which these philosophies have been reflected in university instruction. He does not investigate the presence of these philosophies in official statements by provincial departments of education, nor does he indicate the influence of these philosophies upon public thought. For Alberta, at least, it seems fair to state that the above analysis is not valid either for the Department of Education or the general public. Those people who have formulated official policy statements for the Territories and for Alberta appear to have been Christian, or at any rate to have had such deference for many of the values traditionally associated with Christianity that religious idealism has been the widest deviation from Christianity that has been expressed. Provincial policy statements, it could be observed, must take account of the many people and many public figures who profess Christianity. There is a political dimension here about which governments have revealed much sensitivity.

IX. HYPOTHESES

With the summary of this study now complete, the hypotheses of Chapter II can best be considered by groups, or, in some instances, individually. The first two hypotheses are related and should be treated together:

1. That Alberta has had two main periods of educational thought, pre-1936 and post-1936.

¹³John A. Irving, Science and Values (Toronto: The Ryerson Press, 1952), pp. 56-82.

2. That Alberta has had many periods of thought, with a steady change from period to period.

All of the evidence contained in this study shows Hypothesis 1 to be a vast over-simplification. Hypothesis 2 is more nearly correct. There are changes from period to period in the features of the educational system, in the aims, in the kinds of individuals provided for, and in the basic philosophies. Changes did not occur in all of these things in every period, and the degree of change is not the same in each period for the factors that did change.

3. That the aims for education in Alberta were relatively narrow until 1936 and then much broader thereafter.

4. That since 1885 the aims for education have become steadily greater in number and wider in scope.

Hypothesis 3 is as untrue as Hypothesis 1 is, for they are both part of a myth that exists in this province. Hypothesis 4 is the more accurate statement. The aims for the school have become greater in number, and with respect to such aims as citizenship and intellectual development have become wider in scope.¹⁴

5. That Alberta was "traditional" in education until 1936 and "progressive" thereafter.

6. That no one term is applicable to Alberta education in the pre-1936 period or the post-1936 period.

Hypothesis 6 is the correct hypothesis. While various individuals during the 1936-63 period spoke of 1885-1936 as comprising a

¹⁴See Section II of this chapter.

period of "traditional" education, the writers of those fifty-one years make no such assertion. And this author hesitates to use any such term, for its use obscures the great and significant changes that took place in schooling in those years. It is also true that no one term applies to Alberta schooling since 1936, since the term "progressive" is no longer current after 1945.¹⁵

7. That Deweyan experimentalism was the philosophy basic to the educational ideas of 1936-1950.

Since Christian idealism became basic to education in 1945, the above hypothesis is incorrect. If the dates are changed to read 1936-1945 there is good evidence for asserting that experimentalism influenced educational thought but was not the philosophy basic to it.¹⁶

8. That the school's function has been to promote change amid order.
9. That the school's function has been to preserve the existing social order.

Both hypotheses are essentially true. Educators have long accepted the general nature of society (democratic, with elements of capitalism) as being proper for us. They have, however, held that imperfections in the system exist, and that the proper way to overcome these imperfections is by rational, evolutionary processes. One of the school's tasks is to help foster a fine balance between anarchy and social rigidity.

¹⁵See Section VII of this chapter.

¹⁶See Section VIII of this chapter.

10. That changes in education resulted basically from changes in ideas held by educators.

11. That changes in education are the result of many general and specific forces reacting together in a complex way.

Hypothesis 11 is correct. Throughout this summary chapter it has been shown again and again that the public school reflects in a general way--over a long period of time--the various social, religious, economic, political, technological and educational¹⁷ forces that have been at work in our society. Educators are the authors of some forces, but must interpret all forces, and accordingly must propose changes for the schools in policies and procedures. Only to this limited extent is hypothesis 10 true.

X. WHAT IS 1936?

For education in this province the year 1936 has a kind of magic quality about it. Without any doubt the date 1936 can conjure up more visions, dreams, confusions, myths and half-truths than any other date in our educational history. One is therefore forced to ask if 1936 was really as significant as it has been made out to be. The answer of this author is that 1936 is not as significant as either its friends or its enemies has stoutly maintained.

In many respects 1936 simply represents a continuity in educational ideas or a continuity in changes in ideas:

¹⁷For example, evidence about individual differences, the securing of motivation, the values of group activity, the organization of subject matter best suited to securing meaning, and the organization of a class for securing the best self-discipline.

1. The junior high school organization was new, but it was no more or less a change than the 1912 change from "standards" to "grades".
2. The 1936 curriculum was not different in principle from curricula developed in the 1912-22 period.
3. Text and reference policy was a continuation of previous policy.
4. Courses of study in themselves were not different in principle.
5. Examinations had additional kinds of questions asked.
6. Teaching procedures received some additions, but older procedures were still considered valid.
7. The aims for the school were not new in any regard, except that social training was viewed in a different perspective.
8. Educators continued to show concern for the schooling of more children for more grades, and for more abilities and handicaps.
9. The form of the school was still the same.
10. The school's involvement in social change was still the same.

Essentially, the basic changes of 1936 lay in some re-organization of subject matter (in the integrated programme), and some additions in teaching method that authorities considered a logical accompaniment of the changes in subject matter. These changes were made in order to give more growth in pupil character and in social training.¹⁸ There was also

¹⁸1936 authorities, although familiar with education in Alberta in pre-1936 years, tended to ignore all existing statements about the aims of the school with respect to morality, good character, and social adjustment.

a change in promotion policy. Departmental writers held that intellectual achievement would be at least as good under the additional procedures as under the old.

The year 1936 does not represent the following:

1. An emphasis upon social behavior and a disregard of intellectual achievement.
2. Permission for pupils to run wild or to run the schools.
3. A contempt for the experience or cultural traditions of the past.
4. An over-emphasis upon physical activity and a decline in reading and study.
5. An equal educational value placed upon all courses.
6. An assumption by the school of responsibility for the complete training of the child.¹⁹

It is necessary to point out (as Chapter IX of this study does) that a number of changes in educational ideas took place in 1945, and that 1936-63 is not a single period of educational thought.

¹⁹"The whole child goes to school" is a completely sensible saying. It simply indicates that a teacher must be sensitive to all of the various individual, home and community factors that affect the ability of children to learn.

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX A

SOME BASIC PHILOSOPHICAL POINTS OF VIEW

- I. IDEALISM
- II. IDEALISM AND CHRISTIANITY
- III. ETHICAL IDEALISM
- IV. INSTRUMENTALISM

APPENDIX A

Introduction

At certain points in this study such terms as "idealism," "Christianity," "ethical idealism," and "instrumentalism" are used. This Appendix gives brief statements about each of these terms. Concepts basic to idealism are introduced first. It is next shown how idealism and its derivative of natural law are an essential part of Christian thought. "Ethical Idealism" is shown to be a generic term under which Christianity could be subsumed. A brief statement about Instrumentalism follows.

I. IDEALISM

In Runes' Dictionary of Philosophy, Idealism is spoken of in these general terms:

Idealism:

Any system or doctrine whose fundamental interpretative principle is ideal. Broadly, any theoretical or practical view emphasizing mind (soul, spirit, life) or what is characteristically of pre-eminent value or significance to it. . . . Idealism stresses the supra- or non-spatial, non-pictorial, incorporeal, suprasensuous, normative or valuational, and teleological. The term Idealism shares the unavoidable expansion of such words as Idea, Mind, Spirit, and even Person; and in consequence it now possesses usefulness only in pointing out a general direction of thought, unless qualified, e.g., Platonic Idealism, Personal Idealism, Objective Idealism, Moral Idealism, etc.

The term appeared in the later 17th Century to name (a) the theory of archetypal Ideas, whether in the original Platonic teaching or as incorporated into Christian Platonic and Scholastic theism; (b) the epistemological doctrine of Descartes and Locke, according to which "ideas," i.e., direct objects of human apprehensions, are subjectively and privately possessed. . . . this latter view put in doubt the very existence of a material

world. . . .¹

The theory of archetypical Ideas, mentioned above, can be amplified as follows:

. . .With Plato (the word "idea") denotes in the world of things the counterpart of the concept, an immutable essence or being, accessible only to thought. Plato's doctrine of ideas gave stability and objectivity to philosophical concepts. A bold logical fantasy in Platonism transfers concepts to the external world, hypostatizing them into independent essences standing over against us. The world of thought which thus originates becomes for Plato the core of all reality, the supporter of the world of sense.²

And again:

. . .Plato's view comes to this: To the universal notions or concepts which constitute science or general knowledge as it is in our mind, there correspond ideas in the objective world. These ideas are not something indwelling in the individual things, as for instance form in matter, or essence which determines the separate and independent existence apart from the individual object related to it. It also seems to proceed from or to dwell in some celestial world. There is indeed community between the ideas and objects of sense experience. This community consists in participation. The ideas are prototypes, the sensible objects, copies; imperfect imitations of their archetypes.

. . .For Plato the ideas were independent sovereign forms. In post-classical Hellenism, we find Philo of Alexandria using ideas to denote the thoughts of the Divine Spirit. Accordingly we here not only have a unity as a source of all multiplicity, but the whole of reality is supported and spiritualized by a universal Soul. Likewise, mighty movements were introduced by the fact that the powers mediating between the Deity and mankind were combined into the unity of the Logos or World-Reason, the first-born son of God. Even with Origen the essence of reality consists of an invisible world of ideas. Thenceforth the doctrine becomes a constituent element in Christian speculation; and material being originates subsequent to this invisible world, and continually requires its constituting and animating powers.³

¹Dagobert D. Runes (ed.), Dictionary of Philosophy (New York: Philosophical Library Inc., 1942), p. 136.

²James E. Creighton, "Idea," Encyclopaedia Americana (1947 edition), XIV, 661.

³Ibid., p. 661.

Runes' Dictionary of Philosophy says that Theistic Platonism maintains that "archetypes of existent things are eternal ideas in the mind of God."⁴ The ideas are "also archetypes of rational thought and the goal of fine art and morality."⁵

In accord with much of what has been said above is an Encyclopaedia Americana statement about idealism. In this source it is indicated, too, that idealism is a fundamental attitude or point of view from which men interpret the world, or some special phase of human experience. The essential characteristic of idealism is that it interprets the reality with which it deals as having a meaning, an idea, apart from its sensible appearance, and assumes that in this inner significance its truth and ultimate essence consists. It follows that the material world with its mechanical laws is in some sense secondary and derivative.

With respect to religion the Americana notes the following:

. . . All forms of religion which rise above mere fetichism necessarily presuppose an idealistic view of the world. This is obviously true of a religion like Christianity. But even if a religion denies individual immortality and the doctrine of a personal God, it cannot exist without assuming that the universe is to some extent governed by the ideas and purposes of a super-human power (or plurality of powers), and that it is not therefore a mere play of mechanical phenomena.⁶

The Americana notes that it is usual to distinguish between subjective and objective idealism. The former is an incomplete and

⁴Runes, op. cit., p. 137.

⁵Ibid.

⁶James E. Creighton, "Idealism," Encyclopaedia Americana (1947 edition), XIV, 663.

undeveloped form.⁷ It resolves existence into a series of ideas in the mind of the individual, holding, in Schopenhauer's phrase, that "the world is my idea." The proof that it offers for this position is based mainly on the epistemological thesis that we know and can know nothing but our own ideas. The difficulties and inconsistencies of this view are now generally recognized and the idealism of the present day is known as objective idealism. This does not deny the existence of external reality, but finds implicit in it the same principles of reason and purpose that are present in the individual mind. As a philosophical system, idealism has to formulate its conclusions in a series of logical propositions and to furnish proofs of their validity. In doing this it proceeds by way of a criticism of the standpoint and categories of natural science. That is, idealistic philosophy attempts to show that the scientific standpoint when taken as an ultimate account of the nature of things is in itself incomplete and inconsistent, and that when the necessary supplementations and corrections are made it points the way to a view of the world as a rational and purposive system:

To make our view of the world completely consistent, many idealists maintain, we are obliged to hold that all its parts are included in an all-embracing system of experience, which finds its unity in the ideals and purposes of an Absolute Mind.⁸

Idealism, as it has been discussed, can thus have both a highly specific and a general sense. In the highly specific sense, one may be referring to the Platonic concept of "ideas" as independent essences

⁷For example, it was noted earlier as the "epistemological doctrine of Descartes and Locke, according to which ideas, i.e., direct objects of human apprehension, are subjectively and privately possessed."

⁸Creighton, op. cit., p. 664.

having their own separate and independent existence. In the general sense an idealist asserts that the universe is to some extent governed by the ideas and purposes of a superhuman power, that all parts of the world and of experience find a unity in the ideals and purposes of an Absolute Mind or God. It should be noted that the general sense may or may not include the specific Platonic interpretation of "ideas." Aristotle, for instance, rejected the Platonic ideas and developed a doctrine of "forms," indicating that forms did not have an independent status but a being only in things.⁹ The Aristotelian version passed into Christian (Catholic) philosophy in the thirteenth century through Thomas Aquinas. Thus while Thomistic philosophy speaks of a God as Creator and Absolute Being, as having ideas and purposes that govern the world, it does not speak of ideas as having an independent existence.

II. IDEALISM AND CHRISTIANITY

It is possible for an objective idealist to think of "ideas" as existing in Mind or in the Absolute. In Christianity, however, the believer makes a personal God the source of all. "I believe in God the Father Almighty, maker of heaven and earth. . ." runs the Apostle's Creed. Christianity asserts that God revealed himself in the person of Jesus Christ; that Christianity is "the religion which includes the gospel of Jesus (God as the morally perfect Father) and the gospel about Jesus ("God was in Christ, reconciling the world unto himself," 2 Cor.

⁹Runes, op. cit., p. 264

V, 19)."10

If God is the source of all, it is possible to believe as Theodore M. Greene does:

For I am also a professing Christian in the Protestant tradition. This means that I believe in a God who, whatever else he may be, is a dynamic agent, a spiritual power of force, not to be equated with the most objective of values but rather to be conceived of as their ultimate ground and source. This belief is quite consistent with the characteristic idealist belief in "objective" values, but quite incompatible with the equally characteristic idealist insistence on the ontological ultimacy and self-sufficiency of values and with their frequent disbelief in a dynamic God of righteousness and love. In short, I am not at all a typical "secular" objective idealist: I am rather a philosophically atypical Christian idealist.¹¹

And again:

I am an "idealist" in my belief in the reality, the discoverability, and the importance to man of objective values--of truth, beauty and goodness as pure essences, and of truth, beauties and concrete instances, of goodness as finite embodiments of these absolute values. . . .¹² I am a Christian in my wholehearted acceptance of Christian theism and, in particular, of what I conceive to be the Biblical account of ultimate reality, human nature, and human destiny.¹³

Greene indicates, too, that he is a "credal relativist," one who believes in God and objective values and in man's ability to know both in some degree but never absolutely--only finitely, from some historical and cultured and personal perspective that necessarily distorts what it

¹⁰William Allan Neilson, Thomas A. Knott, and Paul A. Carhart, Webster's New International Dictionary of the English Language (Springfield: G. and C. Merriam Company, 1952), p. 478.

¹¹Theodore M. Greene, "A Liberal Christian Idealist Philosophy of Education," Modern Philosophies and Education, Fifty-fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (Chicago, Ill.: The University of Chicago Press, 1955), p. 94.

¹²Greene's citation of values as pure essences appears to have Platonic connotations.

¹³Greene, op. cit., p. 97.

reveals.

Maritain (a Catholic) outlines the Thomist idea of the nature of man, and the nature of man's relationship to God:

The Thomist idea of man coincides with the Greek, Jewish and Christian idea: man as an animal endowed with reason, whose supreme dignity is in the intellect; and man as a free individual in personal relation with God, whose supreme righteousness consists in voluntarily obeying the law of God; and man as a sinful and wounded creature called to divine life and to the freedom of grace, whose supreme perfection consists in love.¹⁴

According to Maritain it is a fundamental human datum that moral life is linked with religious life and experience. "If the existence of the One who is the Absolute Being and the Absolute Good is not recognized and believed in," says Maritain, then "no certitude in the unconditional and obligatory value of moral law and ethical standards can be validly established and efficaciously adhered to."¹⁵

Greene has asserted that "objective reality is orderly."¹⁶ This statement is in keeping with what Maritain has just said relative to the "law of God" or "moral law." For Christianity, in addition to having an idealistic basis, also accepts the derivative view of "natural law;" the world (and the "ideas" behind the world) holds some kind of order and regularity. Right action for us human beings consists in attuning ourselves to that order.

In this doctrine of natural law certain assumptions are made about the universe in general and about human beings in particular.

¹⁴Jacques Maritain, "Thomist Views on Education," Modern Philosophies and Education, Fifty-fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (Chicago, Ill.: University of Chicago Press, 1955), p. 63.

¹⁵Ibid., p. 83.

¹⁶Greene, op. cit., p. 102.

As Grant says of the universe:

The assumption about the universe is that it is a cosmos and not a chaos. That is, the universe is governed by law (by reason or mind). . . .By law is not meant something simply human, which we make. It is that which at every point makes the universe what it is. . . .--a great system of beings all moved by law and ultimately ruled by the divine mind. It is a hierarchial system in which all beings have their place, from the stones who obey the laws of the physical world, up through the plants and animals to man, and beyond men to the angels, and finally to God who is reason itself. . . .

This view of the universe as a great chain of being bound together by mind must be understood if we are to see the moral principles of natural law which arise from it. . . .(If) we come to deny that the planets in their movements can be known as an expression of divine purpose or law, we will eventually, if we are consistent, deny that there is any purpose or law governing human life. . . .(If) we deny that, we are denying that there is such a thing as human morality.¹⁷

Grant goes on to indicate that the assumption about human beings is that the human is a rational creature who has the power to determine for himself the ends he shall pursue; he chooses his ends through reflection. Man's nature can be perfected and brought to its highest possibility through the union of his reason with divine reason. Thus the logical completion of natural law is to pass beyond a simply practical life into a life of mysticism, into a life of union with God.

This doctrine of natural law lies behind the fundamentals of our legal system:

. . .The Greek formulation of natural law was taken over by the Romans as the theoretical basis of their great empire of law. The doctrine was later immensely illuminated by Christian revelation, as also on the other hand the Christian Church was illuminated by it. And it passed over into European civilization through the

¹⁷George Grant, "Philosophy in the Mass Age" (in the radio series "University of the Air," broadcast in January-February, 1958), pp. 12-13. (Mimeographed).

Christian Church.¹⁸

Thus, the law which is administered in the courts derives its origin and its sanction from the eternal law of right and justice which is at once the law of God and of nature. Worldly laws depend on that supreme law which pre-exists both written laws and the state itself. Worldly laws are only true and good insofar as they are in conformity with a law which is more than man-made; they are just only if they mirror the divine law of justice.

The doctrine of natural law extended into the area of personal moral decisions as well. The right way to live can be deduced from that eternal and unchanging law which is Reason and the Will of God. "Moral conduct (is) therefore not thought of as a matter of convenience, but the attempt to actualize the eternal in one's own life."¹⁹ If the moral law is eternal and unchanging, it means that moral standards are not relative but absolute. As Grant says:

. . . Right action was not considered a matter of our convenience or simply what we think is right. It asserted an objective moral law which did not depend on what we thought. It never questioned the absolute distinction between right and wrong.²⁰

As was mentioned above, too, it was by use of his reason that man could discern ends and choose ends; he could ascertain what it was that moral law required of him.²¹

¹⁸Ibid., p. 12. ¹⁹Ibid., p. 14. ²⁰Ibid.

²¹The use of "reason" in no way denies the part played in Christian theology by revelation. The Christian accepts both contemplation and revelation as routes to knowledge of God and His moral law.

III. ETHICAL IDEALISM

The Dictionary of Philosophy has a brief statement concerning Ethical Idealism:

Any system of moral theory may be called Ethical Idealism, whether teleological or formal in principle, which accepts several of the following: (a) a scale of values, moral principles or rules of action; (b) the axiological priority of the universal over the particular; (c) the axiological priority of the spiritual or mental, over the sensuous or material; (d) moral freedom rather than psychological or natural necessity. In popular terminology, a moral idealist is also identified with the doctrinaire, as opposed to the opportunist or realist; with the Utopian or visionary as opposed to the practicalist; with the altruist as opposed to the crass egotist.²²

It will be seen that Christianity is one of those systems of ethical thought that could be classified under the heading of Ethical Idealism; Christianity has a scale or hierarchy of values, it gives priority of the universal over the particular, the spiritual over the material, and it stresses freedom of choice in moral situations.

It is apparent that idealistic systems which do not conceive of a God as the Christian does, or which do not have a Christ, could meet the various criteria given above for Ethical Idealism. The criteria noted could also be true of those systems of thought that Theodore M. Greene has classified above as "secular" idealism.

IV. INSTRUMENTALISM

The philosophy known as Instrumentalism is associated primarily with the name of John Dewey. In Instrumentalism, Dewey did not try to arrive at a conception of what true "reality" is; he was not interested in this age-old conflict between idealism and materialism. He attempted,

²²Runes, op. cit., p. 137.

instead, to explain human development as the result of the natural co-operation of men in society, with exclusion of any resort to metaphysical conceptions. "Such (metaphysical) conceptions are, from Dewey's point of view, nothing but the results of escape from reality, or products of a leisure class which permits itself to indulge in contemplation. . . ." ²³ Things are to be explained not by supernatural causation, but by their place and function in the environment. "Dewey rejects metaphysics as the echo and disguise of theology." ²⁴

As Durant says:

What distinguishes Dewey is the undisguised completeness with which he accepts the evolution theory. Mind as well as body is to him an organ evolved, in the struggle for existence, from lower forms. His starting point in every field is Darwinian. . . .

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 . . . This does not mean that mind is reduced to matter, but only that mind and life are to be understood not in theological but in biological terms, as an organ or an organism in an environment, acted upon and reacting, moulded and moulding. We must study not states of consciousness but modes of response. . . . Thought is an instrument of re-adaptation; it is an organ as much as limbs and teeth. Ideas are imagined contacts, experiments in adjustment. . . . The essential point in all response is the desire to control the environment. The problem of philosophy is not how we can come to know an external world, but how we can learn to control it and remake it and for what ends. Philosophy is not the analysis of sensation and knowledge. . . . but the synthesis and coordination of knowledge and desire. ²⁵

Thus the motivation and standards of our actions, both low and high, lie in our desire to find ways of mastering and improving our environment. And the only way to do so is to use and control our many

²³Robert Ulich, History of Educational Thought (New York: American Book Company, 1945), p. 322.

²⁴Will Durant, The Story of Philosophy (New York: Garden City Publishing Company, Inc., 1943), p. 391.

²⁵Ibid., p. 392.

impressions so that they may ever lead to more effective experiences, even if the road goes through trial and error. "Human life is best described as an experimental process, and the best method of living is the empirical method."²⁶

. . . Reasoning, we perceive, begins not with premises but with difficulties; then it conceives an hypothesis which becomes the conclusion for which it seeks the premises; finally it puts the hypothesis to the test of observation and experiment. The first distinguishing characteristic of thinking is facing the facts--inquiring, minute and extensive scrutinizing, observation. There is small comfort for the mystic here.²⁷

Thinking is social, too; it occurs not only in specific situations but in a given cultural setting. Society is the soil in which human nature develops. The individual is as much a product of society as society is a product of the individual. The experimental process, the empirical method, is most necessary to social co-operation and the solving of social problems.

. . . But the only way to see the situation steadily and see it whole is to keep in mind that the entire problem (of science out-running other phases of human thought) is one of the development of science and its application to life. . . . Morals, philosophy, returns to its first love, love of the wisdom that is nurse of good. But it returns to the Socratic principle equipped with a multitude of special methods of inquiry and tests; with an organized mass of knowledge and with control of the arrangements by which industry, law and education may concentrate upon the problem of the participation by all men and women, up to the capacity of absorption, in all attained values.²⁸

And again:

The experimental logic when carried into morals makes every quality that is judged to be good according as it contributes to the

²⁶Ulich, op. cit., p. 323. ²⁷Durant, op. cit., p. 392.

²⁸Ibid., p. 394. (Quoting Dewey, The Influence of Darwin on Philosophy, p. 71.)

amelioration of existing ills.²⁹

Thus far it has been pointed out that part of Dewey's instrumentalism involved the assertion that ideas are instruments of response and adaptation, and that man has the best possibility of solving his various problems (including the social) when he uses the scientific method. It should also be noted that instrumentalism involves the view that the truth of ideas is to be judged in terms of their effectiveness.

Ulich, commenting upon Dewey's thought, has the following to say:

"When the claim, or pretension or plan is acted upon it guides us truly or falsely; it leads us to our end or away from it. Its active dynamic function is the all-important thing about it, and in the quality of activity induced by it lies all its truth and falsity. The hypothesis that works is the true one; and truth is an abstract noun applied to the collection of cases, actual, foreseen and desired, that receive confirmation in their work and consequences." The needs and desires which truth must satisfy, are not conceived as personal and emotional (as with James) but rather as "public". . . . Although Dewey emphasizes the functional role of propositions and laws (and even of sensations, facts and objects), and describes these materials of knowledge as means, tools, instruments or operations for the transformation of an indeterminate situation in the process of inquiry. . . . he does not clearly deny that they have a strictly cognitive role as well, and he once states that "the essence of pragmatic instrumentalism is to conceive of both knowledge and practice as means of making goods--excellencies of all kinds--secure in experienced existence. . . . Indeed, in his Logic (p. 345), he quotes with approval Peirce's definition: "truth is that concordance of an abstract statement with the ideal limit towards which endless inquiry would tend to bring scientific belief, . . ." Here truth seems to be represented as progressive approximation to reality, but usually it is interpreted as efficacy, verification or practical expediency.³⁰

The above theory of "truth" needs to be considered in conjunction with Dewey's notions about the ends of human existence. As may be

²⁹Ulich, op. cit., p. 324. (Quoting Dewey, Reconstruction in Philosophy, p. 172).

³⁰Runes, op. cit., pp. 246-47.

ascertained from previous quotations by and about Dewey, his instrumentalism included no thought of any absolute "good" as an ethical criterion; there are no values or ends which are ultimately metaphysical in character; there is nothing "outside" the world imposing a plan or pattern upon the world's processes or man's actions.

Thus, for instance, in respect to education, Dewey said that to set up any end outside of education, as furnishing its goal and standard is to deprive the educational process of much of its meaning, and tends to make us rely on false and external stimuli in dealing with the child.

"Growth" is, for Dewey, the finest of all things:

Not perfection as a final goal, but the ever-enduring process of perfecting, maturing, refining, is the aim of living. . . . The bad man is the man who, no matter how good he has been, is beginning to deteriorate, to grow less good. The good man is the man who no matter how morally unworthy he has been, is moving to become better. Such a conception makes one severe in judging himself and humane in judging others.³¹

Geiger amplifies something of what Dewey implied in the above quotation with respect to the terms "good" and "bad":

. . . This is indeed why the idea of growth is a central one. . . . Growth cannot be a means to any ulterior end except more growth; the same holds for life itself and for education. The very concepts of life and growth imply continuity. They are teleological only in this sense of continuity--which is exactly what evolution means. Nor is it a cogent objection to say that some particular kind of growth or of life or education is morally preferable to another as an end. Such an objection would indicate that the whole point has been missed. For the growth and life and education which are being underlined in an approach like this are assumed to be full and symmetrical. It is partial and distorted growth alone which must be rejected. Education for crime or for sadistic persecution means growth which checks other growth in both the individual and the group; life that is parasitic is the frustration of other life. Growth must signify growth in general, a

³¹Durant, op. cit., p. 393 (quoting Dewey, Reconstruction in Philosophy, pp. 176, 177).

continuum of growth.³²

³²George W. Geiger, "An Experimentalist Approach to Education," Modern Philosophies and Education, fifty-fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (Chicago, Ill.: University of Chicago Press, 1955), p. 148.

APPENDIX B

AIMS FOR THE SCHOOL, 1942, 1949, 1950

PROGRAMME OF STUDIES FOR THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL, 1942

OUTCOMES OF THE INTEGRATED PROGRAMME

A. DEVELOPMENT OF THE INDIVIDUAL THROUGH SOCIALIZATION

The outcomes under this heading relate specifically to those attitudes and appreciations developed in the individual during the course of the enterprises.

1. Development of sound mental health through establishing a happy frame of mind.
 - (a) A cheerful attitude in undertaking new or difficult task.
 - (b) Evidence of satisfaction in the achievement of a task.
 - (c) A cheery environment or room atmosphere as a product of joint cooperation between pupil and teacher.
 - (d) A friendly manner towards others.
2. Development of sound physical health through the application of specific knowledge to health practices.
 - (a) Active participation in the physical education programme of the school.
 - (b) Active participation in the outdoor games, sports, hikes, and picnics of school and community.
 - (c) Determining the extent to which one may contribute to athletics and to sports.
 - (d) Attention to personal and group health in and out of school.
 - (e) Appreciation of the proper types of food and clothing in relation to the health of individuals and groups.
3. Development of an attitude of concentration and sustained effort in enterprise activities.
 - (a) Perseverance in solving problems.
 - (b) Care and persistence in construction work.
 - (c) Sustained application in the discovery of information.
 - (d) Carrying a task through to significant completion.
4. Developing an attitude of respect for the scientific method.
 - (a) Solving arithmetical problems.
 - (b) Conducting science experiments.
 - (c) Health investigations.
 - (d) Committee responsibilities for research in Social Studies.
 - (e) Engaging in the whole enterprise.
 - (f) Recognizing the stages in the scientific method; viz., awareness of the problem, gathering materials, searching for data, interpreting data, making observations, drawing conclusions, applications of the problem.
 - (g) Elimination of superstitious ideas and practices.

5. Development of thinking and reasoning as opposed to unrelated memorization of facts.
 - (a) The use of facts to analyse, to associate, to compare, and to interpret experiences.
 - (b) Connecting ideas with present experience.
 - (c) Thinking in terms of cause-and-effect relationships.
6. Development of a spirit of worth-whileness as opposed to a notion of inferiority.
 - (a) One's ideas are worth something after the exercise of careful thought.
 - (b) When one has valuable ideas he should be ready to make a contribution.
 - (c) Problems are solved by the method of co-operative endeavour.
7. Recognizing the value of the contributions of others.
 - (a) Eliminating selfishness on the part of the individual through willingness to make concessions.
 - (b) Interpreting the contributions of others in relation to one's own thinking.
 - (c) Readiness to modify one's thinking in the light of the thinking of others.
8. Appreciation of the group relationship of the self in shared activity.
 - (a) Stimulation of thought as a result of group activity.
 - (b) Social value of participation in games, sports, parties in school and community.
 - (c) Contribution to the growth of the individual through membership in the family group.
9. Through widening interests, to develop an appreciation of the immediate and of remote environments.
 - (a) Appreciation of the contributions made by the home, school to our needs.
 - (b) Appreciation of the contributions made by the peoples of other lands in supplying their own needs.
 - (c) Appreciation of the interdependence between peoples of different environments.
 - (d) Appreciation of the contributions made to our increased comforts by the scientific thinkers, health heroes, and leaders in group control.
10. Developing an appreciation of high standards of conduct.
 - (a) Independence and initiative through the contributions made by the individual in group activities.
 - (b) Recognition of individual responsibility toward the completion of a task.
 - (c) Willingness to take part in group tasks and to cooperate with others.
 - (d) Readiness to assume leadership and also to follow directions.
 - (e) To develop tolerance and goodwill by eliminating group, national,

religious, and race prejudice.

- (f) To develop the qualities of loyalty and teamwork in relation to the group.
 - (g) To have regard for the health, welfare, comfort and convenience of others.
 - (h) To develop a sense of duty in the execution of tasks.
11. The stimulation of the imaginative and creative powers of the child.
- (a) Creative expression in art activities.
 - (b) Composition work in music.
 - (c) Creation of rhymes, mimes, and riddles.
 - (d) Writing original essays, poems, plays, and stories.
 - (e) Dramatic and dance performances.
12. Development of an appreciation for the beautiful.
- (a) Appreciation of the rhythm and harmony of music and poetry.
 - (b) Appreciation of the famous masters in painting.
 - (c) Appreciation of the beauty of design in architecture.
 - (d) Appreciation of the beautiful in Literature.
 - (e) Display of taste in decoration of the school and home, as well as in personal dress and adornment.
13. Appreciation of the beauty and wonders of nature.
- (a) The mysteries of the heavens.
 - (b) The marvel of flowers.
 - (c) The beauty of the sunset.
 - (d) The perfection in a snow-flake.
 - (e) The power of wind and wave.
 - (f) The remarkable provision for adaptation of plants and animals for their environment.
 - (g) The remarkable structure of the human body.
14. Appreciation of the need of caring for property, and for conserving our natural resources.
- (a) Respect for property in school, home and community.
 - (b) Value of nature's gifts to man.
 - (c) Unsound exploitation of our natural resources.
 - (d) Government control of our natural resources.
 - (e) Rapidity with which resources are consumed related to length of time for their replacement.
15. Appreciation of the democratic principle that all members of a group should, by common consent, be interested in the common good of all.
- (a) Rights of individuals and of the group.
 - (b) Freedom to express one's opinions in a group.
 - (c) Respecting the rights and opinions of others in a group.

B. DEVELOPMENT OF UNDERSTANDING THROUGH A KNOWLEDGE OF IMPORTANT IDEAS AND FACTS

As the pupil engages in the activities and studies arising out of this Programme, his understanding of life about him will be enriched. He will gain insight into the significant ideas and generalizations which form the fabric of the course. He will become more fully aware of the social relationships in his immediate community, of the effect of environment upon his own life and the lives of others, of the interdependence of individuals and social groups, and of other concepts vital to his adequate participation in the social life around him. The understanding of these themes by the pupil is a major aim of the integrated programme.

Through the various enterprises the pupil will discover, also, the need for and the value of accurate information. He will learn to gather, to weigh, and to use facts and data for definite purposes. Constant care will be required to differentiate between the learning of factual material unrelated to any immediate or worthwhile objectives and the use of necessary information in satisfying specific needs. Mere memorization of subject-matter content is not education. In all his school experiences it is important that the facts and information which the pupil acquires shall function in clarifying his ideas of social living.

1. An understanding of the social life of his community.
 - (a) The home, the school and other community groups.
 - (b) The services rendered by various social groups in the community.
 - (c) The way in which the community satisfies its basic needs.
 - (d) The rights and obligations of individuals in the community.
 - (e) The interdependence of individuals and social groups.
2. An understanding of the effect of environment on human living.
 - (a) The vastness and order of the universe.
 - (b) The sun as the source of energy.
 - (c) The nature of the earth and its movements.
 - (d) Man's dependence on plants and animals.
 - (e) The effect of geographic forces on human needs and activities.
 - (f) The necessity for adaptation to environment.
 - (g) How people adapt themselves in different environments.
3. An understanding of the contributions of the past to the present.
 - (a) Ways of living in primitive, ancient, medieval and modern times.
 - (b) The gradual improvement of ways of living through the ages.
 - (c) Man's increasing control over nature.
 - (d) The continuous change in nature and in social life.
 - (e) Our debt to the past.
4. An understanding of man's increasing control over environmental forces.

- (a) The modification and improvement of plant and animal forms to satisfy human needs.
- (b) The inventions which have increased man's power to satisfy his needs.
- (c) The discoveries which have improved the quality and increased the quantity of human products.
- (d) The bridging of time and space.
- (e) The increasing interdependence throughout the world.
- (f) The increasing need for education.

5. An understanding of man's social adjustments.

- (a) Changes and improvements in means of individual and group protection.
- (b) The changing nature of social organization with varying environments and times.
- (c) The interdependence of individuals and social groups.
- (d) The necessity of proper social adjustments for successful living.

C. DEVELOPMENT OF SKILLS AND ABILITIES

Another aim of the integrated programme is to develop in the pupil the skills and abilities which will give him the power to attack and solve his problems.

1. Training in the scientific approach to solving problems.

- (a) Knowledge of scientific procedure.
- (b) Training in the use of this approach in activities and problems.

2. Development of ability to use the tool subjects in enterprise problems and activities.

- (a) Skill in silent and oral reading necessary for securing and imparting information.
- (b) Ability to use clearly and fluently oral and written language in reporting and recording ideas.
- (c) Ability to spell correctly and write well.
- (d) Ability to think quantitatively and to use the number skills which may be needed.

3. Development of effective study and work habits.

- (a) Ability to concentrate on a problem.
- (b) Ability to complete a task.
- (c) Skill in the use and care of tools, materials and apparatus.
- (d) Ability to follow directions.

4. Development of ability to locate information.

- (a) Knowledge of sources of information: libraries, magazines, newspapers, etc.
- (b) Ability to use reference books; skill in the use of the table of contents, the index, the glossary, etc.
- (c) Ability to use the dictionary and simple pronunciation key.
- (d) Ability to understand simple graphs and tables.

(e) Ability to use globes and flat maps.

5. Development of ability to use information.

- (a) Ability to select and organize materials.
- (b) Ability to make simple outlines, notes, and written reports.
- (c) Ability to make worthwhile oral reports.

OBJECTIVES OF EDUCATION

(Bulletin 2, Program of Studies for the Elementary School, 1949)

The ultimate goal of education is the happiness of the individual. Accordingly, the teacher's purpose is to assist each child in the class to unfold as fully as possible his unique potentialities; he should direct his attention primarily to the welfare of each boy and each girl, recognizing that if every child as an individual in his own right is given the opportunity for proper physical, mental, emotional, social and spiritual growth, he will cheerfully and understandingly fulfil his responsibilities to his fellows.

Just as desirable goals are defined in terms of personal growth, so the progress toward those goals must be measured in terms of personal action. The aim of the school is not so much to teach pupils all the facts they have not yet mastered as to hasten into action all the desirable behaviours they have not yet attained. It is acknowledged that our educational system is effective only to the degree that pupils improve in their thoughts and actions as a result of school attendance. Fortunately the task of the elementary teacher in observing and evaluating outcomes through actual child behaviour is lightened by the fact that young children tend to translate their inner thoughts readily and directly into spoken words and overt activity.

What then, are the desirable growths we seek to foster most in the children of Alberta schools? They are classified in four categories:

I. Attitudes:

Each child should have experiences that help to develop:

1. Self-respect--marked by control, discipline and direction through one's own initiative.
2. Creativeness--marked by personal expression that becomes unique and revealing.
3. Scientific viewpoint--marked by the power to delimit problems, search for data, weigh evidence, form conclusions, and above all to evaluate one's own judgment in the light of subsequent events.
4. Co-operation--marked by consideration for the rights and feelings of others and a willingness to share cheerfully.
5. Responsibility--marked by readiness to carry tasks to completion,

to behave honestly with oneself and with others, and to accept the consequences of one's own actions.

6. Social concern--marked by earnest effort to implement whatever desirable ends the group may seek.
7. Reverence--marked by a conviction of Deity, and a regard for His supreme handiwork, mankind.

II. Appreciations:

Each child should have experiences that emphasize:

1. The dignity, worth and possibilities of the individual, reflected in a high standard of conduct for oneself, and a high regard for other people and their values and beliefs.
2. The dignity, value and achievements of work in science, in religion, in philosophy, in art, in literature, in craftsmanship, in honest labour everywhere.
3. The manifestations and beauties of Nature--both in the natural state and as revealed through science.
4. The increased values derived through associations with others--in recreation, in conversation and other expression, in common cultural activity, with a special appreciation of the family relationship and its stabilizing influence.

III. Understandings:

Each child should learn to recognize the significance of:

1. The social life of expanding communities.
2. The interdependence of all forms of life.
3. The effects of environment on human life.
4. Man's increasing control over nature.
5. Man's increasing knowledge of social development and social control.
6. The contributions of the past to the present.
7. Democracy as a way of life.
8. Responsibilities inherent in a democratic way of life.

IV. Abilities and Skills:

Each child should increase his capacities to:

1. Read for one's own pleasure and to obtain needed information.
2. Communicate with others orally and in writing.
3. Listen.
4. Find, organize and use information.
5. Use numbers and mathematical processes effectively.
6. Solve problems of a social and scientific nature.
7. Express oneself through artistic media.
8. Maintain health.
9. Function as a wise purchaser and consumer.
10. Maintain concentrated efforts in accordance with native ability and natural maturation.

FUNCTIONAL OBJECTIVES OF THE ALBERTA SECONDARY SCHOOL

(Curriculum Guide for Alberta Secondary Schools, 1950)

"Clearly defined goals give direction for the school's work with students. The development of the individual must take into account both his present needs arising from problems of adaptation to his environment, and the nature and direction of the development of the social environment. These factors are not to be considered in isolation from one another, but as closely interrelated forces in a state of dynamic equilibrium. In a democracy, policies and ideals are subject to examination, criticism, and redefinition at all times. The same policy holds true for a school staff's fundamental purposes. Objectives, once stated, must be subjected to critical examination and redefinition. The process is continuous. Teachers must be serious students of adolescents, of the values of democracy, and of their community."

Previously we have enumerated the three basic factors of the educative process, and devoted some space to the discussion of the nature and needs of our high school youth, the distinctive features of modern society, and the importance of the physical environment in secondary education. Our three factors of the educative process viewed as general purposes of secondary education were restated as follows:

- (a) the fullest realization of personal potentialities;
- (b) the preservation and improvement of the democratic social order;
- (c) the understanding, utilization and improvement of the physical environment.

We must now consider the avenues or means whereby Alberta students may be offered socially approved direction toward these goals. Such avenues of pupil growth are, however, the three general purposes given above, enlarged and set forth in such terms as may enable them to function as clearly discernible goals of secondary education. They are therefore called the Functional Objectives of Secondary Education to distinguish them from the more general statement of purposes in Chapter II. In these, emphasis is placed only on their functional significance in directing the educative process. They are four in number:

- 1. Personal development.
- 2. Growth in family living.
- 3. Growth toward competence in citizenship.
- 4. Occupational preparation.

The comprehensiveness of these objectives is better realized when they are expanded to permit closer examination.

1. Personal Development.

The prime aim of the school is to assist each Alberta youth in his

growth towards maximum self-realization. The following definite goals are included under this heading.

- i. Health and physical fitness,
- ii. Mental health,
- iii. Intellectual achievement:
 - (a) ability to think rationally, to express thought clearly and to read and listen with understanding;
 - (b) A broad understanding of the methods of science, its major findings and its influence on human affairs;
 - (c) A broad understanding of the fundamental principles of mathematics and their importance in daily living; a mastery of mathematical skills necessary for vocational competence;
 - (d) an understanding and appreciation of cultural heritage.
- iv. The development of suitable recreational and leisure-time activities.
- v. The development of character manifested in sound habits of behavior in social relationships.
- vi. The development of a pattern of values, attitudes, and ethical ideals which generalize and furnish justification for good habits and culminate in a philosophy of life which recognizes the importance of religion.

2. Growth in Family Living.

Each Alberta youth must learn to appreciate the unique and indispensable place in society played by the home and family and especially the influence of the family unit upon right thinking in connection with morals, institutions, and the current issues of democratic living. The school should assist him to achieve a better understanding and appreciation of:

- i. The responsibilities and privileges of the members of the family group;
- ii. The home as a democratic institution;
- iii. The conditions essential to successful family life;
- iv. The opportunities for enjoyment at home;
- v. The functions and responsibilities of parents;
- vi. The relationship of the family to its neighbors and the community.

3. Growth Toward Competence in Citizenship.

Each Alberta youth must be brought gradually to a realization of his position and responsibilities in the school, community, province, nation, and finally in the community of nations. The school should guide him in:

- i. Acquiring insight into the historical background of contemporary society;
- ii. Developing competence in meeting, and attempting to solve, public problems and issues which citizens are required to encounter and on which they must take action;
- iii. Developing competence in political action at the school, community, national, and world levels;

- iv. Developing consumer competence;
- v. Developing democratic attitudes and behavior in all social situations;
- vi. Establishing loyalty to the ideals of democracy and acquiring an appreciation of his community, the province and the nation.

4. Occupational Preparation.

The school must help each Alberta youth to develop those understandings and attitudes that will make him an intelligent and productive participant in economic life; and assist him to develop saleable skills, or prepare him for post-school vocational training. The youth should:

- i. Become familiar with the range of vocational opportunities open to him;
- ii. Learn how to take full advantage of the school and extra-school guidance services;
- iii. Achieve an acceptance of his own capacities as indicated by professional analysis of interests, socio-economic status, aptitudes, personality, and native intelligence.

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